the same reason for which individuals of certain Nágá tribes erect stone monuments at the present day, not 20 miles distant. There was certainly no back or front side to the corridor in the strict sense of the term, for the V-pillars are carved on both faces and on the lower or outside face of the arms. To the west of this edifice, and parallel with it, runs a broad shallow ditch, dry in the cold weather, and on the edge of it, opposite the centre of the corridors, stands a large isolated pillar now much broken, skirting an old tank; and about 150 yards further, another isolated pillar is found, the largest in the place, being 16 feet 8 inches high and 23 feet in circumference. great solid masses of sandstone (which is very soft when first quarried) must have been brought in and set up in the rough and then carved, or they would have been much damaged in getting them up. In this largest pillar such is evident; the original mass did not admit of its being cut with perfect curve, and here and there the concentric rings of carving follow into the natural and original indentations of surface. The gradual rise of land surface with probable sinking of the stones had hidden the sculptured portions for more than a foot of one examined. Some of the pillars have been brought down by falling trees, but I think an earthquake has had its share; for one of the corner V-supports has been twisted quite out of its original position (vide large plan) from west to east, 90 degrees, the weight of the arms of those on either side falling in contrary directions would have aided this. The sketches I have attached to this paper with the drawings of the pillars as they now appear will, I trust, give some idea of the style of architecture of these curious old ruins which are fast disappearing with the rapid growth and damp of the surrounding forest.

On the History of Pegu.—By Major General Sir Arthur P. Phayre, K. C. S. I., C. B.

(Continued from Journal, Part I, for 1873, p. 159.)

Mahá Upa Rádzá, the eldest son of the deceased emperor, burnt the body of his father, on the fifth day after his death, with the funeral ceremonies used for a Tsekya waté (Chakrawartti), or universal monarch. The bones were collected and cast into the river at its mouth. He then declared himself his father's successor, and appointed his own son Mengkyítswá, Upa Rádzá. He is in the Taláing history styled Nanda Bureng. The army which had been sent to Arakan was at once recalled. The king of Siam, Byanarít, came it is said to Hantháwati, and did homage, as did other tributary kings. But the king of Ava, uncle to the Emperor, did not appear, and his daughter, who was married to the Upa Rádzá, complained

to her father of being neglected and degraded. The king of Ava now entered into communication with his brothers the kings of Táungú and Prome, and also with the king of Zimmé, to sound them as to how far they would support him against the young emperor. They at once disclosed the intrigue. The emperor suspected that many of his nobles and officers had joined in a conspiracy against him, and thirty of them with their wives and children were burnt as traitors. The Emperor now determined to march to Ava, and was joined by the kings of Prome and Táungú with their armies. Advancing by the latter city, the emperor reached Pán-wa in May, The battle which followed, the Burmese history represents rather as a duel between the uncle and nephew, than as an action between two armies; while a contemporary European authority seems to intimate that after the personal encounter between the two leaders, a great slaughter of the Ava army occurred. The king and the emperor, each on his warelephant, fought desperately, and had a select body of supporters who joined in the conflict. But the two chief antagonists appear to have singled each other out. The victory depended on the staunchest elephant, and though the emperor's fell exhausted, yet a fresh one being supplied, which he forthwith mounted, the victory was secured to him. The king of Ava fled, and escaping from the field, entered the Chinese territory, where he died soon after. The emperor carried away his uncle's family to Hanthawati, and appointed Máung Setyá, a son of the Emperor Tabeng-shwé-htí, to be governor of Ava. He died not long after, and Meng-ré-kyau-tswá, a younger son of the Emperor, was made tributary king.

During the contest near Ava, the conduct of Byanarít, king of Siam, was at first suspicious and then openly hostile. The Burmese and Taláing histories leave it doubtful what family Byanarit belonged to, but this is made clear by the history of Siam. That history, as related by Pallegoix and quoted by Sir John Bowring, agrees in the main with the history of Burma regarding the great struggle between the two countries during about fifty years in the sixteenth century; but differs considerably as to the dates of some events. The first and unsuccessful siege of the capital Yuthia (Yodayá) by Tabeng Shwé-htí, according to the Siamese history, took place in A. D. 1543. This event in the Burmese and Taláing histories is stated to have occurred in 1548-49. The next invasion of Siam was by Bureng Náung, and took place according to the Burmese history in A. D. 1563-64, but by the Siamese history in 1547-48. On this occasion the white elephants were taken, and the king of Siam was carried away, his son Brámahin being made tributary king. The Siamese history states that, in 1552, the king abdicated in favour of his son. This event probably answers to the statement in the Burmese history of the king while in captivity at Pegu, becoming a Rahán about the year A. D. 1568. He would thus neces-

sarily vacate the throne in the opinion of his own subjects. After this, he was allowed by the emperor of Pegu to go to his own country as a pilgrim. But there he threw off his monk's frock, and excited a rebellion which led to the second siege of Yodayá by Bureng Náung in 1569. During this, the king, that is he who had formerly abdicated and become a Rahán, and who is called Brátha-di by the Burmese, died. His son Brá-ma-hin, called Mahin tha-ra-thi-rát in the Siamese history, succeeded him, but was forced to surrender the city, in A. D. 1555, or fourteen years earlier than the date given for the same event in the Burmese history. This king was also carried off to Pegu, but the Siamese history states that he died on the way. The Burmese history is silent on this point, and it is not improbable that he was put to death. The emperor of Pegu then, according to the Burmese history, appointed one of the Zimmé royal family to be tributary king of Siam. In the history of Siam, he is called Phrá Thamma raxa thirat, and it is stated that he had formerly been king of Phitsilok. Though appointed to the kingdom by the emperor of Pegu, he was faithful to the interests of his own race; and his son Phra Naret, the Byanarit of the Burmese, at the age of sixteen distinguished himself by his hospitality to the Pegu troops on This young prince by the death of his father became king the frontier. of Siam about the year 1577, A. D., though the Siamese history places that event ten years earlier. Siam now become practically independent. Byanarit is called by the Portuguese the black Prince, and lived until the year 1605, A. D., as mentioned by the Hollander Floris, though the Siamese annals state that he died in 1593.

When Nanda Bureng was collecting his forces to advance to Ava in 1584, he summoned the king of Siam to attend with his army. Byanarít no doubt had designs to establish his own independence, but he appeared to obey the order and entered Pegu by the Tsit-taung route. The emperor was then in the upper country, but the Upa Rádzá, who was regent at the capital, directed the king of Siam to march on Ava. Instead of doing so, he came close to the city, and menaced an attack upon it. Hearing, however, that the emperor had defeated the king of Ava, he retired to Muttama, and carried off from thence a number of the inhabitants into Siam. The emperor at once sent a force against Siam under the Upa Rádzá. The expedition was hastily planned and badly executed. In marching down the banks of the Menám, the invading army was attacked by Byanarit, and forced to retreat with heavy loss. To retrieve this disaster, the emperor himself in the year 1587 led a large army which invested Yodayá. The Burmese history admits that the besiegers were unequal to the task. Thousands died from want and exposure, and the emperor was forced to make a disastrous retreat, returning to his capital in June 1587. The year following, the king of Prome having died, the emperor appointed one of his sons to that kingdom.

The emperor, anxious to preserve the empire unbroken, determined once more to invade Siam, in order to subdue that country. But the large armies which his father had assembled could no longer be raised. The expedition was entrusted to the Upa Rádzá, who marched in November 1590. Nearly the whole of this army was destroyed by incessant attacks from the Siamese. The Upa Rádzá was severely rebuked by his father on his return, and many of the superior officers were put to death. As some compensation for this disaster, the kings of Prome and Ava were successful in an expedition against Mogaung, where the Tsáubwá had rebelled.

The emperor once more sent an invading army against Siam under the Upa Rádzá. He succeeded in reaching near to Yodayá, but in a battle with Byanarít, in February 1593, the Upa Rádzá was killed, and but few of the invaders lived to return home. Meng-ré-kyáu-tswá, the king of Ava, was now appointed Upa Rádzá.

Pegu was now utterly exhausted. Discontent was universal, and the emperor, suspicious of every one, became wantonly cruel. The Buddhist monks of Taláing race excited his hatred. Numbers of them he forced to become laymen, and then either exiled or killed them. Thousands of the Mun people abandoned their country and fled, while those caught in their flight were put to death for the attempt. The country of the delta became depopulated, and an attempt was then made to drive down the people from the upper Eráwatí, to till the fertile land of Pegu. But famine and plague raged, and there was no help.* During this calamity, the king of Siam having come with an army to Martaban, the whole Taláing population joined him. He advanced to Hantháwati, but hearing that a force was moving down from Táungu, he retreated to Martaban, and thence to his own country. The king of Prome now rebelled against his father, and determined to take possession of Táungu, the native state of the family. He marched there, but as the Siamese had retreated from Pegu, the king of Táungu set out to return home and recover his capital. His brother of Prome then retired, carrying off all the cattle he could seize. At this time, the younger brother

* The traveller Bernier, writing from Dihlí in 1663 to the minister Colbert, alludes to these dreadful events. Commenting on the internal disorder and the weakness of most Asiatic states, he observes: "To remove the danger of commotion, and put an "end to all fears on that subject, nothing more appears necessary than the measure "adopted by a Brahmin of Pegu, who actually caused the death of half that population "by famine, converted the country into forests, and prevented for many years the "tillage of the land. But all this did not suffice. Even the Brahmin's plan was unsuc-"cessful; a division of the kingdom took place, and Ava the capital was very lately on "the point of being captured by a handful of fugitives from China." The Brahmin of Pegu here mentioned is the "Brahma king of Pegu" of the Portuguese, the Burma king as we now write it. In 1662, a Chinese army did advance to Ava, to demand a fugitive Prince, whom the king of Ava delivered up, pretending to suspect him of hostile designs.

of the emperor, styled Ngyaung Ram Meng, governed the country of the upper Eráwatí with his capital at Ava, and remained faithful to the empire. The emperor by his incapacity and his cruelty alienated all the other members of his family. Even his uncle, the king of Taungu, and his brother the king of Zimmé now followed the rest. The king of Táungu wrote to the king of Arakan, who had become powerful, to join him, and the same year 958, or A, D, 1596, according to the Burmese history, the son of the king of Arakan, styled Meng Khamáung, came with a large fleet, and took possession of Syriam, This town had gradually become the principal port of Pegu, and was the great depôt for foreign produce intended for the capital. The king of Taungu now sent an army against Pegu under his son Nát sheng náung; but it was not until 1598, that he and the Arakanese prince had concerted operations, and invested Hanthawati, Numbers of the leading nobles and citizens now left the city, and many of them fled to The emperor's son Meng-ré-kyáu-tswá entered the Táungu camp and was sent off to the city of that name, where the queen, at the instigation of her son, put him to death. The king of Taungu now entered the city and took possession of the palace; the emperor and all his family surrendered themselves prisoners. The city was plundered, and though the Arakanese force does not appear to have participated in the occupation, a portion of the plunder was reserved for them, and a white elephant and one of the emperor's daughters was sent to their camp. The city was taken in December, 1599, and thus ended the reign of the emperor Nanda Bureng, called also Ngá-tsú-dáragá. He and his empress were sent without delay to Táungu.

The king of Siam, Byanarit, hearing of these events, determined to march to Pegu to take his revenge for former invasions of his country. The king of Taungu did not desire to make Pegu the seat of his kingdom. The Talaings were inimical; the country was spoiled, and from the presence of Europeans he felt that he could do nothing without a fleet. He therefore returned to his own country, leaving everything to the prince of Arakan. But he carried off many of the inhabitants of the city, and immense treasures; the Burmese history adds also the holy tooth relic which had been acquired This relic, it is stated, was some years later taken, when from Ceylon. Táungu was captured by the son of Ngyáung Ram Meng, and carried to Ava, where it was enshrined in the Rádzá Mupi-tsúla Zedi. The king of Siam marched on to Táungu, and demanded that the emperor should be delivered up to him. This being refused, he invested the city, but provisions failing he was forced to retreat. Returning to Martaban, he made a Taláing chief tributary king of that portion of Pegu with the title of Binya Dala, and Bya-thabáik was made tributary king of Tavoy. He then returned to his own kingdom. The prince of Arakan carried off from Hanthawati whatever of value remained, and the city was utterly destroyed. Pegu proper seems now to have been ruled by various local chiefs and by the Portuguese adventurers at Syriam.

Nga-náung-dáu, son of the king of Táungu, urged his father to put the emperor to death, as a measure requisite for their own safety. The king replied that what he had done was for the public benefit, and not from hatred to his nephew. The prince then went to his mother, and though she was the sister of the emperor, by her order he was secretly murdered, early in the year 1600. Thus the empire of Pegu, which only forty years before, European travellers had described as the most powerful in Asia except China, was utterly broken up.

It will be interesting now to quote from European authors notices of the events we have summarized from the death of Bureng Náung in A. D. These events are related by the Portuguese historian Sousa; by Nicolas Pimenta, a Portuguese priest; by Gasparo Balbi, a Venetian merchant traveller; and by Peter Floris, a Hollander. Ralph Fitch, an Englishman, also came to Pegu in 1586 during the reign of Nanda Bureng. He gives a faithful account of the country and people, but says little of public events. He describes the king as keeping great state, and says, "When he goeth to war he goeth very strong. At my being there, he went "to Odia in the country of Siam with 300,000 men, and 5000 elephants." This refers to the expedition of 1587, described in the Burmese history. Balbi, who was at Pegu in 1583, states that he had an audience with the king who received him kindly. This was before the evil days came, which totally changed his disposition. The traveller, however, saw the beginning of his troubles in his quarrel with his uncle the king of Ava. Suspecting that his own nobles were intriguing against him, he had them burnt as traitors with their wives and children, "an eminent and spacious scaffold" being built for the purpose. The Burmese history, diminishing as usual the cruel act of the king when any such is mentioned, says that only thirty persons were burnt; Balbi says "four thousand, great and small," which must be an exaggeration. Still the number must have been very large. "I also," he states, "went thither, and saw with great compassion and grief, that little "children without any fault should suffer such martyrdom." "Ten days " after that I saw the king upon an elephant, all over covered with gold and "jewels, go to war with great courage. He encountered with the king of "Ava, and they two fought body to body, without any hindrance from the "armies." He states that the king of Ava was killed on the spot, which differs from the Burmese account, and that the emperor's elephant was killed. Nicolas Pimenta, whose narrative is translated in Purchas, came from Goa to Pegu in 1597, and remained in the country for a year or two. He relates the principal events in the reign of Nanda Bureng, " of the race

of the Bramas," and how that king, maddened by his misfortunes, commanded his son the king of Ava to bring "all into the kingdom of Pegu "now so destitute of inhabitants; but the aire not agreeing, they brake out "in pushes and diseases." The king of Siam then besieged Pegu. By the "help of some Portugals and Turks the city escaped; but famine succeeded "with a worse siege, insomuch that they killed and did eat each other."

For subsequent events, Pimenta refers to the letters of two Jesuit Fathers, Andrew Bones and Francis Fernandez, who relate the surrender of the emperor of Pegu to the king of Táungu, and the arrival in Pegu of a second expedition sent by the king of Arakan to secure some of the treasures still left in the city. "I went thither," says the Father, "with Philip Brito, and in fifteen days arrived at Syriam, the chief port in Pegu. It is a lamentable spectacle to see the ruins of temples and noble edifices; the ways and fields full of skulls and bones of wretched Peguans, killed and famished and cast into the river in such numbers, that the multitude of carkasses prohibiteth the way and passage of any ship.* * * The king of Arakan is yet Lord of Pegu, though not acknowledged by those who fled and hid themselves, and hath delivered Syriam to Philip de Brito, that the Peguan fugitives might have refuge under Portugal protection."

The narrative of Faria y Souza relates the insane measures of Nanda Bureng after the death of his son, who, as we have seen, was killed in Siam in the year 1593, and which, as already shown, long after attracted the notice of Bernier. "The king of Pegu," he states, "in a rage for the death " of his son, turned his fury against the people, and some days burnt above "ten thousand, throwing so many into the river Ganga* as stopped the "passage even of boats. He forbid them sowing, t which caused such a "famine, that they not only eat one another, to which purpose there was a " public butchery of man's flesh, but devoured part of their own bodies. This was followed by a pestilence that depopulated the whole "kingdom. The neighbouring princes taking this advantage, fell upon the "king of Pegu, covetous of his treasures. Among them was the Black of "Siam, who retired with the loss of 100,000 men. The king of Táungu " was he that possessed himself of all; he promised life, liberty, and estates "to all that would come over to him. The first that deserted were the "Portugueses and Moors; for some Portugueses are like Moors in matter

^{*} An error as to the name of the Pegu river.

[†] This interference with agriculture, which is also mentioned by Bernier who appears to have read this account, is alluded to in the Burmese history in a somewhat obscure passage. The crown-prince Meng-ré-kyáu-tswá, about A. D. 1593-94, it is stated, took possession of a large area of rice land, with the object apparently of cultivating it, doubtless by forced labour, under government direction, in order to lower the price of rice. It is admitted in the history that the effect was the very reverse.

"of interest. After them followed a bastard son of the king, whose head was cut off by order of the king of Pegu's sister, wife to him of Taungu, saying that he who was false to his father, could not be true to her. * * "The king of Pegu in despair delivered himself up to the king of Taungu, who being possessed of the city and palace, found such treasure that he made no account of silver and other metals and riches. It is avouched for truth that he could not remove all the jewels and gold in twelve caravans, each consisting of 700 elephants and horses. The news of this treasure drew thither the king of Arakan, who contenting himself with what he of Taungu undervalued, gathered above three millions, and a great train of large cannon. The king of Taungu presented him of Pegu to his sister, and she who having killed his son for betraying him, it was thought would comfort him, used him reproachfully, and afterwards seeing the king her husband inclined to mercy, caused him to be beaten to death."

Pegu, but yesterday the seat of a great empire, was thus utterly overthrown. And, strange spectacle, though the king of Arakan had some authority on the coast, no one seemed able or willing to become the master of an extensive country, with a fertile soil and a healthy climate, commanding the outlet of a noble river, and capable of being made a great kingdom, The fate of this land was for the moment decided by the presence of European adventures, who swarmed in Pegu and Arakan. At this time, the king of Arakan was Meng Rádzá gyi, called also Thado Dhammá Rádzá. His predecessors, more than a century earlier, had been tributary, or at least subordinate, to the kings of Bengal; they had adopted the custom of issuing a coinage, and generally inscribed thereon, in addition to their own titles, the Muhammadan name which each king assumed. In the reign of Meng Phaláung, father of Meng Rádzá gyi, the kings of Bengal had become weakened, and he held Chittagong and the country as far as the Megna river. Muhammadan name he adopted was Salím Sháh; which the Portuguese historian has written Xilimixa. He determined to occupy Pegu, but knowing that the Portuguese could command the sea, he was willing to hold it, partly at least, through one of that nation. At this time there was a Portuguese youth who appears to have been a ship boy, and became a menial servant in the palace at Arakan. By faithful service he came to be thoroughly trusted, and was honoured by his master with a title signifying "the faithful or honest one." This is rendered in the Portuguese history "Xenga," and indeed appears in the Burmese history, though in the somewhat contemptuous form of "Nga Zenga." His real name was Philip de Brito and Nicote. He was sent by his master in the year 1600 to hold Syriam for the king, but the Portuguese were to be allowed to live there under their own laws. The king of Arakan reserved his own rights over the country of Pegu generally. The Portuguese historian relates three events

in the following words: "Xilimixa, king of Aracam, who had possessed him-" self of the crown of Pegu, to express his gratitude to the Portugueses that "served him, gave them the port of Siriam, at the mouth of the river of "the same name that runs within a league of Bagou, the court of the kings This grant was obtained of the king for the Portugueses by "Philip de Brito and Nicote, who most ungratefully proved false to that " Prince that had raised him from a vile collier to his favour and esteem. "The manner was thus: Xilimixa, confiding in Nicote, was by him persuaded "to erect a customhouse at the mouth of that river for the increase of his "revenue; and his design was to seize upon it and build a fort there, to "give footing to the Portugueses for the conquest of that kingdom." king built a fort but appointed an officer of his own, styled Bannadala (Binya Dala), to command it, and Nicote determined to take possession of it. This he effected by means of a small body of Portuguese under John de Oliva, Paul del Rego, and Salvador Ribeyro. Nicote then went to Goa to gain the support of the Viceroy to his enterprise. The king of Arakan, afraid to send troops by sea where the Portuguese were masters, marched six thousand men across the mountains to a point on the Eráwatí river, and from thence conveyed them by boat. They were under the command of Bannadala, and were joined by some troops sent by the king of Prome. They appeared before the fort near Siriam, where Ribeyro commanded. at once boldly issued out and attacked them with a handful of men. Though this attack was successful, yet Bannadala soon received large reinforcements and surrounded the fort. The investment continued for eight months, and Ribeyro determined not to surrender, burnt three ships he had in the port. At length relief was sent by the Viceroy, Ayres de Saldanna, and the investing force withdrew. But when the Portuguese force. which appears to have been principally seamen, and was required elsewhere. sailed from Pegu, the enemy again gathered, and the siege was renewed. This time, however, from some superstitious dread, consequent on the appearance in the sky of "fiery meteor," the besieging army broke up and Ribeyro now took such prudent measures, that the leading men among the Taláings, who only waited for a master, joined him with their followers, and offered to proclaim Nicote as king of Pegu. Ribeyro accepted the crown in his name. In the mean time, Nicote had received from the Viceroy the titles of Commander of Siriam, and General of the conquest of Pegu. He married the Viceroy's niece, her mother being a Javanese, and returned to Pegu with six ships. He at once announced his reception of the kingdom in the name of his sovereign, and entered upon his duties as governor. He repaired the fort, built a church at Siriam, and marked out a new city, which, with prudent management might have become the capital of a great province under the crown of Portugal for many generations.

The king of Arakan wishing to temporize, sent to compliment him, and he returned a rich present to his former master. But this false courtesy on both sides was soon changed to open war. Joined with the king of Taungu, the king of Arakan sent a force under his son Meng Khamáung, with whom were two chiefs, called by the Portuguese Ximicolia and Marquetam. They advanced to the Portuguese town with a fleet of seven hundred small vessels. These were met and defeated by a small fleet under the command of Paul del Rego Pinnero. The Prince Meng Khamáung fled, but was followed by Nicote himself in some fast galleys and was taken prisoner. Nicote, to his credit be it said, treated the prince, to whom he had formerly been servant, with deep respect. "He watched him sleeping," says the Portuguese historian, "holding his buskins in his "hands with arms across, a ceremony used by the meanest with their kings, "in those parts, and himself attended him on all occasions." The king of Arakan entered into communication with Nicote for the release of his son, and appears to have come himself to Pegu for that purpose. From Goa the Governor received orders to surrender the prince without ransom. But with strange inconsistency, after his generous treatment of the young Prince, he demanded a ransom of fifty thousand crowns, on the ground that it was for the expense of the fleet he had fitted out. This led to further hostilities, which are thus related by the Portuguese historian. "The "king of Arakan, justly offended thereat, set out a small fleet against him and "which was easily defeated, but gave him occasion to enslave 100,000 Chris-"tians and treat them with great rigour; which nevertheless moved not many "of them, though but new converts. Afterwards he combines with the "king of Tangu, who besieges the town with a great army by land, while "he shuts it up by sea, with 800 sail in which he had 10,000 men. Paul "del Rego met him with 80 ships, and failing of the success he had for-"merly, setting fire to the powder, blew up himself and all that were with "him, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy. The siege continued "so long, till the besieged were ready to surrender, when on a sudden upon "some suspicion, the king of Tangu quits the field by night, and he of "Arracam found it to no purpose to be longer upon the sea." This was the state of affairs in the year A. D. 1603.

Nicote now seemed secure in his high position. The Taláing chiefs sought his friendship and protection, and the king of Táungu entered into a treaty, or at least a verbal arrangement, with him. His son Simon married a daughter of the king of Martaban, Binya Dala. But the native histories record with bitterness that all the pagodas round the city of Pegu were dug into, and plundered of their gold and silver images and other treasures. The Shwé Dagun, out of respect, it is to be hoped, to the national feeling, was spared. But the Taláing historian remarks that the foreigners wor-

shipped not this sacred building, nor the holy relics enshrined therein. The chief Budhist monk, therefore, from the gifts of the people prepared a new hti, and placed it on the summit of the pagoda with such ceremonies, as in the absence of a native king, could be solemnized. But the people were deeply dissatisfied with the foreign rule, and murmuring said, should this continue long, our race and religion will come to an end. Indeed, the mention by the Portuguese historian of a hundred thousand converts to Christianity, without any explanation of the means by which their conversion was effected, suggests that Nicote in the midst of his worldly strife, vainly thought to strengthen his government, and perhaps to atone for his sins, by pressing Budhists to become nominal Christians.

The history of Pegu now becomes so mingled with that of Burma, that the two can most conveniently be combined in one narrative. A power was rising in the country of the upper Eráwatí, which was destined to avenge the intrusion of foreigners and again to unite the two countries under one crown. Ngyáung Rám Phrá, brother to the Emperor Nánda Bureng, who, as we have seen, was in A. D. 1594 governor in the upper country, reduced it to order from the confusion into which it had fallen on the break up of the empire. The whole country north of Pugán submitted The deposed emperor's son, Meng kyi nháung, who ruled at Prome with the title of Thado Dhammá Rádzá, saw danger to himself from this new power to the north of him. He therefore applied to his uncle, the king of Táungu, suggesting that they should combine against a power which when strong enough, would certainly attack them. This was agreed to, and the king of Prome assembled an army to march on Ava. He went on board his barge of state to move up the river, but was assassinated in the month of October, 1597, by one of his officers styled Rán-náing-tsa. The murderer then put to death all the members of the royal family whom he could lay hands on, and declared himself king of Prome. Some of the murdered king's family fled to Arakan, and one son, Meng-ré-uzaná, to The king of Táungu, who had set his army in motion to march on Ava, now recalled it, and held it in readiness for service against Hantháwati.

Ngyáung Rám Meng, being thus relieved from the threatened danger, rebuilt the palace, repaired the pagodas and completed the defences of his capital. He also assumed the title of Nú-ha-thú-ra Mahá Dhamma Rádzá. In 1599, he marched against the Shan states of Monyín and Mogáung, the Tsáu-bwás of which had refused to pay tribute. He was obliged to withdraw without effecting his object. The following year, he attacked Raméthen, which had been occupied by the king of Táungu. This town he took without difficulty. In the year 1601, he was successful in an attack on the Shan state of Ngyoung-rwé. He next marched against Ba-máu, the chief

of which fearing to be taken, fled to the Chinese city of Mháing-tshi. The king followed to the border of the state of Máing-tim, and from thence sent on his son, the Ein-shé-meng, to demand the fugitive. The governor having referred for orders to the Emperor of China, was about to surrender the Tsáubwá, who attempted to escape. He was, therefore, arrested and put to death, or, according to another account, he swallowed poison. His body was then sent to the Ein-shé-meng, and his wife and children were delivered up.

Early in the following year, the king, in gratitude for his great success, commenced to build the foundations of the pagoda, called Káung-mhú-dáu. It was finished and dedicated in the year 1604.* In 1603, Moné was subdued, and the adjoining states submitted. The king then occupied himself in settling the civil administration of the country and reorganizing his army. He next marched to Mogáung, defeated and captured the Tsáubwá, who was put to death, and his family carried off. The states of Momeit, Thi-báu, and Thein-ní were next subdued. On this last expedition, the king suddenly became ill, and seeing his end approaching, charged his son to recover the whole empire subdued by his father, Bureng Náung, and never to be separated from his brothers. He urged him, when he should take Prome, to spare Rán-náing-tsa, who though now ruling in his own name, had removed a formidable obstacle from their path. The king died in March 1605, and the body was brought to Ava, where it was burned with the funeral honours of a Tsekya-waté. His son succeeded him, and assumed the title of Mahá Dhammá Rádzá. He is also styled Anáuk Phet. completed the pagoda commenced by his father, and placed the hti upon At the close of the rainy season of 1607, he marched against Prome. The king of Prome had sought support from Arakan, but the expected army had not arrived, and the city was invested. After eight months, it was taken by assault. In obedience to the injunction of his father, the king spared the usurper's life. He and his family were sent to Ava. long, however, he was sent to Mogáung, and so is heard of no more. king's brother Meng-ké-thing-gá-thú was appointed governor of Prome, and the king himself now returned to his capital. There he received presents and friendly messages from the kings of Arakan, of Táungu, and of Zimmé, who felt that a powerful rival had arisen, who might become their master. But their offerings and greetings were treated with haughty disdain by one who now felt himself superior in power to each and all. He was indeed intent on fulfilling the dying charge of his father, and worked incessantly to prepare for the conflict. Early in 1610, he marched with a large army

^{*} Such is the statement in the Burmese history; but if the pagoda five miles distant from Ava on the right bank of the river be intended, there is a great discrepancy in this date and that which appears on an inscription within the enclosure of the pagoda.

against Táungu. The king of that state, who was the son of him who had taken Hantháwatí twelve years before, at first behaved with courage, and came outside the city to fight the invader. But losing heart, he entered into negociations, agreed to become tributary, and gave up some of his family as hostages. Mahá Dhammá Rádzá then returned to Ava, carrying with him, the Burmese history states, the holy tooth relic which his grandfather had received from Ceylon, and which the king of Táungu had taken from Pegu when he plundered that city in A. D. 1599. The king did not relax in his efforts to strengthen his army, and gathered round him men of influence from Prome and Táungu.

Philip de Nicote and Binya Dála, king of Martaban, knew that the king of Ava only bided his time to attack them. They appear to have entered into secret communication with the king of Táungu, and after making a league with him, then treacherously attacked him. They marched there, plundered the city and burnt the palace. The king they carried off as a prisoner. Nothing certain is known as to the causes of this attack, but it brought the king of Ava without delay against Syriam; and the Portuguese governor, though recklessly aggressive, appears to have been utterly unprepared to resist attack. In the month of October 1612, the Burmese army proceeded down the Eráwati in an immense fleet of boats, and, during December, Syriam was invested on all sides. By the following April, Nicote who was short both of provisions and powder, was forced to surrender. The city was given up to plunder, and the unfortunate Nicote was made prisoner. The Burmese history relates that, after five days, the king called for him and reproached him with his attack on Taungu. He excused himself by saying that he had been called by the king of that city. As Nicote belonged to that hateful description of heretics who destroy pagodas and holy images, he was impaled on a high stake before his own house, so that all might see him, and so died miserably. The king of Táungu was also put to death. All the foreigners of the same race as Nicote, between four and five hundred in number, were sent to the upper country. A few days after the city had been taken, five foreign ships, manned by Muhammadan sailors, arrived. Four of these were captured and one escaped. They were full of firearms which had been sent for the use of the garrison. Afterwards a ship belonging to Nicote's wife arrived from Achin, and was also captured. Binya Dála of Muttama now made his submission, and was allowed to remain there as tributary king, with the title of Binya Dhammá Rádzá. king of Siam had advanced to Yé, in order to watch events. determined to drive him out, and sent his brother with an army. attacked the Siamese, but was defeated and made prisoner.

As the capture of Syriam marks the downfall of the Portuguese power in Pegu, it will be convenient to quote here the account given by the

Portuguese historian of Nicote's proceedings: "Some of the neighbouring "princes, startled at this success of Nicote, sought his friendship and an "alliance with the king of Portugal. The first that effected it, was the "king of Táungu. Nicote marries his son, Simon, to a daughter of the king "of Martaban, thereby to strengthen himself, and have the opportunity of "gathering more riches. And being now desirous to rob the king of Táungu, "though actually then in peace with him, to colour his wicked design, he "pretends that the king was overcome by him of Ova, (as indeed he was "and made tributary) since the treaty, as if that could absolve him for breach "of faith. In fine, with the king of Martaban's assistance, he fell upon, "took, and robbed him of Táungu, and returned with him and above a "million of gold, without hearkening to the protestations he made of continu-"ing a faithful vassal to the crown of Portugal."

The final catastrophe is related as follows: "Our fortune in Pegu " now declined with the same swiftness it had rise, and it was just a wicked "encrease should have a sudden detriment. The violence committed by " Philip de Brito Nicote on the king of Taungu provoked the anger of the "king of Ova, under whose protection he was. Scarce had he heard the "news, when casting on the ground his gown and veil,* he vowed to the "idol Biay of Degu, he would not enter within his gates, till this quarrel "was revenged. He marched with 120,000 men, having put to seat 400 "vessels of considerable strength, in which were above 6,000 of those "Moors of noted valour, called de Caperuça, or 'that wear caps.' All that "was without the walls of Siriam he burnt, but met with vigorous opposition "at that place, notwithstanding Nicote was quite unprovided, having "suffered most of his men to go for India, and being scarce of powder as "who had fired the vast quantity of it found at Táungu. In this distress, "he sent a soldier to buy powder at Bengala, and he run away with the "money; and having sent for some to the town of St. Thomas, they sent "him none. Besides, those few Portugueses that were with him, committed "such outrages, robberies, and murders, as seemed to hasten his ruin. For "want of powder there was no firing of cannon; they poured boiling pitch "and oil upon the enemy. His number of men might suffice, having 100 "Portugueses; and 3000 Pegues. Nicote sends out three ships against the

^{*} I am not aware of a custom among the Burmese of making a vow by throwing down garments. Nor do the Burmese men now wear what could be correctly described as "gown and veil." The "Biay of Degu," I suppose, stands for Phrá Dagun, now called "Shwé Dagun Phrá," the great pagoda at Rangoon.

[†] An error probably in translation for the river. The king of Ava eame down the Eráwatí.

[‡] The Burmese history states that between four and five hundred remained as prisoners when the place surrendered. This number included women and children. The "hundred Portugueses" refer only, no doubt, to European fighting men.

"fleet; in one of them all the men were slain; the two retired with all "theirs wounded. The enemy began to undermine the works, and the "besieged laboured much, but to small purpose. After the siege had lasted "34 days, Nicote sent to beg mercy, but was not heard. He thought to "prevail by the means of the king of Táungu, whom he had robbed of his "crown, riches, and liberty; but the king of Ova understood and was "resolved to punish him. The king of Arakan whom he had so grievously "offended, sent 50 sail to his assistance, which were all taken by the "besiegers. The king of Ova gives an assault, and they fought three days "without intermission. The end of it was that 700 of the besieged were "slain, one Banna whom Nicote had always honoured, having betrayed "him. Nicote was taken, carried to the king and by him ordered to be "impaled, and set up in an eminence above the port, that he might the "better look at it, as the king said. He lived two days in that misery. His "wife De Luisa de Saldanna was kept three days in the river to be cleansed, "because the king designed her for himself; but being brought before, and "exclaiming against him, he ordered her leg to be bored, and that she should "be sent to Ova among the other slaves. Francis Mendez and a nephew "of his were treated as Nicote. Banna demanding a reward, was soon torn "to pieces, the king saying he could never be true to him, that betrayed "the man who had so much honoured him. Sebastian Rodriguez was "cooped up with a yoke about his neck. At first, the king designed not "to spare any of the inhabitants of that place, but growing calm, he sent "many as slaves to Ova. Then passing by Martavam, he obliged that king "to kill his own daughter's husband, because he was Nicote's son, that "none of the race might remain. This was the end of that man's avarice. "who being naked a few years before, was raised to be worth three millions. "He had one when he went to Goa; brought another from Taungu; and "had got at least another since by prizes and trade. The enemy confessed "they lost at that siege 30,000 men. But that it may appear that seldom "any great calamity happens without the help of a woman, it is necessary "to show how Nicote's wife was one of the principal causes of his ruin. "She entertained one of his Captains as her gallant, and perceiving the "Portugueses censured their familiarity, they persuaded Nicote he had no "need of them, which was the reason they were dismissed, and that the cause " of his ruin."

Thus the seat of power in the basin of the Eráwatí was once more fixed in the upper country, and with the capital at Ava; for the successor to the empire of Bureng Náung and the ancient Burman monarchy deemed Pegu to be too much exposed to the attacks of the western foreigners to be his residence.

List of the Kings (or Emperors) of Pegu from the accession of the Tunngu dynasty, called by Europeans the Brahma or Barma Kings.

Names or titles of kings.	Commence- ment of reign.	Length of reign.	Relationship of each succeeding king.	Remarks.
	Year, A. D.	Years.		
1. Tabeng shwé htí,	1540	10		Conquered Pegu. Assumed the title of Emperor, having subordinate to him the kings of Ava, Prome, Táungu, and Martaban.
2. Thamin-dwut,	1550	three months.		Styled by the Portuguese writers Ximi de Zatan.
3. Thamin-htáu,	1550	H		Styled Xemindoo by the Portuguese. He was a son of Binya Rán, No. 15 of the kings of Pegu, descendants of Wareru.
4. Bureng Náung,	1551	30		Styled Branginoco by the Portuguese. Was the general of the armies of Tabeng shwé htí, and claimed to be his lawful successor.
5. Nanda Bureng, or Ngá tsú dá-ra-ga,	1581	18	Son.	Dethroned and put to death by the king of Taungu.

Essays in aid of a Comparative Grammar of the Gaurian Languages.—By Rev. A. F. Rudolf Hoernle, D. Ph., Tübingen, Professor of Sanskrit, Jay Náráyan's College, Banáras.

(Continued from Journal for 1873, Pt. I., p. 108.)

V.—Essay on the Inflexional Base of masc. and fem. nouns.

In the former essay the Inflexional base of neuter nouns has been discussed. It has been shown that the direct form of the inflexional base of neuter nouns may have a two-fold ending, either in आ or in ची, की, औ, एँ, दें कें; and that the Gaurian ending आ represents the Sanskrit (monosyllabic) ending अम, and the Prákrit ending अं; whereas the other Gaurian terminations are contractions of some final Sanskrit or Prákrit dissyllable, as Skr. ईयम, अकम्, दकम्, जकम्, or Prák. ईअं, अअं, द्यां, उचं; and consequently, that if the Gaurian neuter noun ended in बाँ, ऐ, कॅ, etc., but its corresponding Skr. neuter noun in अस, the former cannot be directly derived from the latter, but in order to obtain the necessary terminal dissyllable, the base of the Skr. neuter must be increased by the addition of the peculiar Prákrit affix a, and the Gaurian neuter directly derived from the Prákrit neuter, thus amplified from the Sanskrit. Most of the Gaurian neuters in द्वाँ, एँ, कॅ, etc., come under the last category; i. e., all except the Infinitives and Gerunds and a few others. In general, the rule may be stated thus: that Gaurian neuters in a are derived from the general base common to both Sanskrit and the Prákrit, while the Gaurian neuters in चौर, एं, ज, etc., are derived from the particular Prákrit base formed by the affix **\(\)** (see IIIrd Essay, p. 154). Again, as regards the oblique form of the Gaurian neuter inflexional base, it was shown that it is merely a corruption or curtailment of the Prákrit organic genitive.

The case of the inflexional base of masc. and fem. nouns in Gaurian is exactly analogous. To prove this will be the object of the present essay. I shall first investigate the inflexional base of the feminine, afterwards that of the masculine.

The direct form of the inflexional base of the Gaurian feminine nouns which are derived from a (Sanskrit) base in अ, may be, like that of the Gaurian neuters, of a two-fold kind, viz., it may either terminate in अ or in ई; e. g., barren woman is बांभा (Skr. वन्धा) or वांभी (Skr. वन्धिका), of the base वन्ध; sheep is भेड़ or भेड़ी, of the base भेड़, etc. These two forms do not always occur in the same word. Very often one form is peculiar to this feminine, the other to that; as, feminines in अ are, बात word (Skr. बाना), खाज shame (Skr. बजा); खाट bed (Skr. खड़ा), भीख alms (Skr. भिचा) ना द sleep (Skr. निहा), etc., feminines is ई are, खड़ी chalk (Skr. खटिका), घरी

clock (Skr. घटिका), मिनी earth (Skr. महिना), etc. Most Gaurian feminines, especially adjective feminines, are of the latter kind.

As regards the form in w, the principle of its derivation has been already explained in Essay III., the regular feminine of bases in graterminates in Sanskrit and Prákrit in आ; (the few cases of a feminine in द् may be considered as exceptional; the feminine affix \$\frac{1}{5}\$ being by rule added to all bases consonantal or vocal, not ending in 3). The Gaurian feminine ending wa is a regular phonetic corruption of the (Sanskrit or) Prákrit termination II, according to Gaurian phonetic law which reduces all Prákrit final long vowels or diphthongs to their constituent vowels. The other Gaurian feminine ending \$, on the other hand, cannot be a modification of the Skr. or Prák. termination जा; for as compared with the Gaurian termination , it clearly represents phonetic increase, which, if it were the immediate resultant of the Skr. or Prák. ending आ, would be contrary to glottic laws. How, then, is the Gaurian feminine ending in \$\frac{1}{5}\$, which corresponds to the Skr. and Prák. feminine ending spof bases in sp, to be derived? If we consult the result of the previous enquiry (viz., that the Gaurian neuter ending a has a Prákrit original a, and the Gaurian ending चाँ, एँ, etc., a Prákrit original अकं, इकं, etc., or अअं, इअ, etc.), we shall conclude that the Gaurian feminine ending wais a modification of an original Prákrit ending आ, and the feminine ending s a modification of the Prákrit feminine ending द्का or द्या, belonging to Prákrit bases in यक or द्क. Bases in अक and दक form in Sanskrit and likewise in Prákrit their feminine in दका (cf. Panini, 46. 7, 4, 46, 47); e. g., Skr. वालक:, Pr. बालको boy, has fem. Skr. बालिका, Pr. बालिखा; so घाटकः horse, Pr. घाडचे। has in the fem. घाटिका mare which in Prákrit becomes घाडिआ and in Gaurian घाड़ी. If the previous enquiry regarding the Gaurian neuters be correct, it follows, that the Gaurian fem. in \$\frac{1}{3}\$, which corresponds to the Gaurian neuter in चौर, ऐ, etc., (and masc. in च्रा, च्रा) must be derived from a particular Prákrit base in द्वा, formed by the affix क; while the Gaurian fem. in अ, which corresponds to Gaurian neuters in \mathbf{a} (and masc. in \mathbf{a}), are derived from the general base in আ (fem. আ); and again, while the Gaurian final আ of fem. nouns is a modification or corruption of the Prakrit final monosyllable 37, the Gaurian final & must be a modification of a Prákrit final dissyllable दुच्चा.

This presumption can be shown to be well founded by the following considerations. Just as occasionally in Sanskrit masculine and neuter bases in अक (i. e., formed by the affix क which is of so frequent application in Prákrit) occur, so are also feminine nouns in दका met with occasionally, and all such Sanskrit fem. nouns in दका end in Gaurian always in दे; e. g., Skr. घटिका clock, Gaurian घड़ी; Skr. घटिका earth, Gaurian चिड़ी; Skr. खटिका chalk, Gaur. खड़ी; Skr. मचिका fly, Gaurian माखी. Some of these feminine

nouns in ई have alternative forms in इया, clearly showing thereby that the termination of those nouns is a modification of इका; for the ending इया has resulted from द्वा by the elision of क्; द्वा first becoming द्या in Prákrit, afterwards in Gaurian (by the Gaurian law inserting a connecting consonant between hiatus-vowels) द्या. E. g., beside खड़ी chalk there is खड़िया, beside मुद्दी handful also मुद्दिया (Pr. मुद्दिश्वा, Skr. मुखिका). Of these alternative forms the longer ones in द्या are merely Prákrit which have been transferred as such into the Gaurian, while those in ξ are the same Prákrit words, only having become proper Gaurian by becoming subject to Gaurian laws; e. g., take the Skr. खटिका chalk; in Prákrit, it becomes खिड्या; next in passing into Gaurian, the Gaurian alternative law comes into play, of either inserting the connecting consonant य, or making sandhi of the hiatus-vowels. Hence in Gaurian, it becomes, either by inserting य, खडिया, which is the Prákritic form of the word, or, making sandhi, it becomes subject to the disintegrating action of the further Gaurian law (explained in Essay III.) of reducing a final long vowel (in the present case স্থা) to its inherent short vowel (i.e., here স্থা), whereby it becomes a proper Gaurian word. Thus instead of অভিযা, we have now ভাভিয়া, and now (by sandhi) the final द्व becomes contracted to ई; just as Prákrit पाणि अं water is contracted in Gaurian to पाणी or पानी; Pr. चोरिश्रं theft (Skr. चै।र्थ) Gaurian चारी, etc. Thus we arrive at the present proper Gaurian form खड़ी. The truth of this theory (that the fem. termination & is a contraction of इअ) is born out by the fact, that in the old Hindí of Chand sometimes a final द्वे is found as a mere compendium scripturae for द्वा, as the metre shows; e. g., in the verses

नाग समुह धडरी।
ढाहि देवल सुरंग मढ॥
थांन थांन नर उडै।
चंद तस उथम पाइय॥ Devagiri Prast.

The metre requires eleven instants in the first and third line and the last syllable to be short; it is evident, therefore, that उँ is merely as it were a stenographic or modernised writing for उउद् (as, indeed, it is still occasionally written), and likewise धडरी for धडरिश (or धडरिश). Chand must have chanted उउद् and धडरिश, forms almost Prákrit, or halfway between the old Prákrit and the modern Gaurian forms.

While Sanskrit feminine nouns in द्वा end in Gaurian always in द, on the other hand, Sanskrit feminines in चा end in Gaurian sometimes in च, sometimes in द. If we keep in view the fact, that in Prákrit an amplified, but equivalent, or materially identical base is formed by the addition of the affix a, so that Skr. bases in च are represented in Prákrit by the two equivalent base-forms in च and चक, and the Skr. fem. in चा by the equivalent

fem. in आ and इका; it is evident that the Skr. fem. ending in आ becomes in Gaurian अ or ई, according as the Skr. fem. in आ assumes in Prákrit one of the two equivalent fem. forms in आ or इका (इआ). If the Skr. fem. in आ retained in Prákrit its form in आ, it assumed in Gaurian the fem. form in आ, but if it assumed in Prákrit the feminine form in आ (इका), it changed in Gaurian to the form in ई; and if it had in Prákrit either form in आ or इआ, it shows also in Gaurian either form in आ or ई. Hence, e. g., the Skr. fem. अआ ewe, is in Gaurian both अझ and अझ simply because in Prákrit the word अझ was current in both its equivalent forms अझा and अझिआ; on the other hand the Skr. fem. बाता may have been in Prákrit current generally only in the one form बाता, and hence appears in Gaurian only in the form बात, but never in the form बाता or बता; * and again all Skr. adjectives (as सत्या true) were in the (colloquial) Prákrit, generally at least, current in the amplified form in इका (as सिंबआ true); and hence appear in Gaurian generally as ending in ई (as सबी).

This theory is clearly proved by a few exceptional forms occurring in High-Hindí. Exceptions, it may be remarked, as a general rule, are like archaic and poetical forms, invaluable for the determination of the origin of grammatical forms, the derivation of which has become obscured. is a small number of Hindí masculine nouns in चा, which form their feminines not, according to the rule, in ई, but irregularly in इया; e. g. बूढ़ा old man (Skr. इड:, Pr. वृड्ड्या) forms its feminine बुढ़िया, not बूढ़ी old woman; कुत्ता dog has fem. कुतिया; पुड़ा parcel, fem. पुड़िया; अंगा coat, fem. जंगिया; गृड़िया doll, etc. † Now बुड़िया, कुत्तिया, etc., clearly stand for the Prákrit बुड्डिया (Skr. द्राइका), कृतिया, etc. The masculine corresponding to वड्डिया would be वड्ड्या, which is represented on the one hand in Skr. by ष्टदः, on the other hand in Gaurian by बूहा.. But it is evident that the origin of the regular feminine in & cannot be different in kind from that of irregular feminines in इया. Their difference simply consists in the degree to which phonetic corruption has gone in either, and the anomaly of those Hindí nouns which have a feminine in द्या, is merely this, that while in the masculine they have assumed the proper Gaurian form in आ (or ओ, i. e. चका), in the feminine they retain the full Prákrit form in द्या (i. e. दका), instead of assuming like the others, also in the feminine the proper Gaurian form in \(\frac{1}{3}\). It follows, therefore, that the feminine ending in \(\frac{1}{3}\) is a curtailment of the original Prákrit ending इआ (इया) or इका; and that all Gaurian

^{*} The reason, probably, was to keep it distinct from the word बाती or वत्ती light, candle.

[†] The Bangálí has बूड़ी old woman; and the low Hindí (Ganwárí) has also बूड़ी, besides दृढ़िया. In the Ganwárí every fem. in द may have an alternative from in द्या, to express contempt or emphasis and determinateness; see note on p. 94.—The Maráthí has क्रां not क्रांच्या.

feminines in दे, like their corresponding masculines in ज्रा, or ज्रा, are derived from a particular Prákrit base in द्का, corresponding to the masculine ज्रका and neuter ज्रकां, formed by means of the affix क.

I have already briefly adverted to the phonetic process, by which the Prákrit termination द्या (or द्वा) has become modified or corrupted into the Gaurian termination &. Though the Gaurian is by no means adverse to the hiatus, when originated within its own sphere; it is, as a rule, intolerant towards those cases of hiatus which originated in the Prákrit. There is a most obvious and natural reason for this tendency, without it the language would have destroyed itself. After the Prákrit had thrown out the consonants, the vowels by themselves could not have long retained existence. The only way of preserving the word from complete annihilation was, either to insert consonants for the vowels to lean upon and to be protected by, or to contract them (by sandhi) into consonants or diphthongs (resp. vowels); e.g., the Sanskrit आगत: (arrived) becomes in Prákrit आअओ; the form आअआ contracts in Gaurian to आओ, and this again might have been contracted into ब्रा, and thus altogether frittered away, if this process of corruption were not arrested by the Gaurian through the insertion of the connecting-consonant य, by which the form आओ is changed to आयो (in High-Hindí आया). Similarly, the Sanskrit उपविष्टः (sitting) becomes in Prákrit उत्रहिए; and to save this almost entire conglomeration of vowels from destruction, the Gaurian makes sandhi of the hiatus-vowels, and changes the form उत्रहरो into बैडे। (or बैडा High-Hindí). This Gaurian tendency comes into operation on the Prákrit feminine termination द्या. Sometimes the Gaurian inserts the connecting-vowel य (thus इया); in that case, the semivowel protects the two vowels द and आ, especially the final आ, which would otherwise be reduced to a (by the other Gaurian law of shortening finals). this way originated those Gaurian feminines which end in इया; and their manner of origination explains why in their case the Prákritic form of the word has been preserved (instead of the proper Gaurian form). Generally, however, the Gaurian has recourse to the other method, of making sandhi. First, the final Prákrit vi is reduced to v, according to the Gaurian law; next, the preceding द is contracted with the following to द by sandhi. Accordingly, the Prakrit termination इञ्चा changes to इञ्च or (with insertion of euphonic य) द्य, and then to दं. E. g., Skr. खटिका chalk becomes in Prákrit खडिया, and in Gaurian either खिड्या or (first खिड्य, finally) खड़ी; or again, Sanskrit द्यता done becomes in Prákrit किया; in Gaurian first किय (किय), finally की. That this is really the way in which the Gaurian feminine in \$\frac{\cdot}{\cdot}\$ originated, is proved by the fact, that the intermediate form in इय (for इअ) is still very commonly found in the oldest Hindí poetry of Chand, as the following verses may serve to show;

पसारी दिथ पुत्र पर।

तिहि पुत्री वर ठार ॥i ।. e.

H. H. पामरी दिई (उस ने) पुत्र का। etc.

Sasivrithá kathá XXV, 2;

Or नीलवरन वसुमितिय पहिर चास्टन चलंकिय i. e.

H. H. नील रंग की है वसुमती।

माना भूषण पहनके संवारी ऊर्ई॥ XXV, 35.

Or कथा जींप सिंग्रहत्त किय। अब कहत कथा विस्तार किय॥ i. e.

H. H. कथा बोलकर सिंग्रना की। अब कहता है कथा विस्तार की। ibid. XXV, 41.

These verses contain examples of the feminine form in হয় (হুখ); viz. दिय (Skr. दत्ता) वसुमितिय Skr. वसुमितिका (Pr. वसुमितिका), अलंकिय (Skr. अलङ्काता, Pr. अलिका); किय (Skr. कता, Pr. किदा or किया).* The sandhi change of द्व to द may be considered to have taken place in this way, that as the final Prákrit va was shortened to va and finally dropped, the preceding द was lengthened to द by way of compensation. This view has in its favour the analogy of other similar cases in Gaurian, where the shortening of the final long vowel is compensated by lengthening a short penultimate There is, e. g., the case of the Maráthí feminine bases, formed by the Gaurian affix द्रंण, as इतीण fem. of इती elephant. In Sanskrit the fem. would be इस्तिनो (of इस्ती), in Prákrit इत्यिणी (of इत्थी). According to the Gaurian law, the final long ई of the Prákrit इत्यिणी is reduced to द; thus making इत्यिण; and according to the other Gaurian law this resulted final द becomes quiescent, and is not written; thus making इत्यिण (just as चाग fire is written for चागि, कर having done for करि, etc.); finally by way of compensating these losses, the penultimate short \(\xi \) is lengthened to

^{*} To the word किय I beg to call special attention. I think it tends to prove my theory of the origin of the Hindí Genitive post position की (का, के) from the participle कत. See Essay II, pp. 138, 139, where I thought it very probable that such forms would yet be discovered in the oldest Gaurian Hindí of Chand.—The Hindí Genitive position की, though identical in sound, is differently spelled from the feminine किई of the past part किया; yet both represent the Skr. feminine कता. The reason of the difference is this, the Skr. form कता may assume in Prákrit two forms, with or without the affix क; i. e. it may be either किया (कता) or किइया (= कतिका). By an identical phonetic process the form किया turns in Gaurian into की, and किइया into किई. Now a little comparison of Gaurian past participles with Skr. and Prákrit ones will show, that, as a rule, Prákrit past participles, when they passed into Gaurian in their proper sense of a past part., passed into it in the amplified (particular Prákrit) form made by the affix क. Conformably to this rule, it was the Prákrit from किया sank down in Gaurian to be the post-position or affix की.

इं; thus we obtain the form इत्योख or (according to Maráthí orthography) इतीण. That this is the true account of its origin is proved by its oblique form इतिणी (e.g. Gen. इतिणी चा), where the form of its Prákrit original re-appears, namely, the originally short \(\xi \) in the penultimate, and the original vowel \(\xi \) in the final syllable.* This final \(\xi \) of the oblique form proves that the inflexional base of the direct form originally ended in $\hat{\xi}$. The case is exactly the same as that of the feminine nouns in अ (like आग, 'etc.), which have an oblique form in $\frac{2}{5}$; and which has been fully discussed in the 3d Essay, p. 159. The oblique form इतिएी, namely, is identical with the Prákrit genitive इत्यिणीस्त or इत्यिणीस. It follows from this derivation of the feminine affix देण that it can properly be added only to such nouns in ई as are derived by means of the Sanskrit affix इन. But it is, irregularly, added also to such nouns in ξ , as are derived (as will be proved further on) from a base formed by the affix द्वा; e.g., मालीण, fem. of माली gardener, and also to nouns in ज (as परभोण fem. of पर्भ) and आ (as बाबीण from वाघ tiger). That this is the true derivation of the feminine affix द्वण is confirmed by the Bangálí, which has, e.g., हातिनी as against the Maráthí हत्तीण, वाधिणी, as against the Maráthí बाघीए; मालिकी, against the Maráthí मालीए. I suspect, however, that the irregularity, just noted, is only apparent; and that we have here two altogether different affixes which though identical in outward form, are widely different in origin. The affix द्रेण, namely, as added to nouns of a Sanskrit base in इन् (as इनी), contains the Skr. fem. affix \$\frac{1}{5}\$, which by the action of the laws of phonetic decay has been altogether lost, while the remainder इ w is really part of the original base and not any affix at all. On the other hand, the affix two, as added to the other nouns, contains probably the Sanskrit feminine affix, আনী (as হুল্বাণী feminine, i. e. wife, of Indra), of which the final & has also been lost, while the remaining vowel दें (i. e. देण minus ण) is a modification of the original vowel आ; e. g. the feminine of वाघ was probably originally वाघाणी, in which form the vowel आ, perhaps under the influence of the final long ई was changed to इ (compare इका the feminine corresponding to the masculine affix इक); hence the Bangálí दार्घण्ं ; again the final द, as usual, was reduced, and on the other hand, the penultimate ξ lengthened to ξ , thus arose the Maráthí वादीण. Some confirmation of this theory may be found in the fact, that while such Bangálí nouns as कामार blacksmith form a fem. कमारनी (the Sanskrit equivalent of which would be कर्मकाराणी wife of a black smith), corresponding Maráthí words as खोदार blacksmith, form a feminine खोदरीण.†

The Gaurian fem. ending द्रें, as we have now seen, is a modification of the Prákrit fem. ending द्ञा (Sanskrit द्का). This fem. termination द्ञा

^{*} The penultimate \(\) reappears because the reason for its lengthening no more exists.

[†] It may be noted that if in these feminines, in which the penultimate has been lengthened in Maráthí, the antepenultimate is a long vowel, it is generally shortened;

corresponds to a masculine termination अभे in Prákrit, अकः in Sanskrit, and to a neuter termination अअं in Prákrit, अकस् in Sanskrit. That is, the base-termination अक is weakened in the feminine to इक. It has been already stated in Essay IV, that the base san may be modified not only to হক, but also to ভক. A few instances of the latter modification occur already in Prákrit, as regards the masculine and neuter; * but as regards the feminine, it is both in Sanskrit and the literary Prákrit almost an exclusive rule to admit only the modification into इत. But in Gaurian, the modification into ज्क is not uncommon, and we may conclude from this fact that it was probably a modification peculiar to the vulgar or colloquial Prákrit (as opposed to the more artificial scenic Prákrit). For we must refer all Gaurian feminine nouns in জ to this base in তল্প. Their termination জ is the proper Gaurian modification of the Prákrit ভন্ম or Skr. ভন্ম, exactly as Gaurian termination ξ is the modification or corruption of the Prákrit termination হুসা, Skr. হুকা. For the Prákrit termination ভুসা may become in Gaurian either, by inserting the connecting vowel ৰ, ভৰা; or, by making sandhi, it may become in the first instance ভন্ন, and finally ক, the present form. Feminine nouns, terminating with the first of the two forms ज्वा, are, as we shall see later on, very common in Ganwari Hindi, e. g. जाड़न wife besides जोड़; etc. The second of the two forms ज occurs, as the termination of many feminine nouns, in Low and High Hindí, and in all other Gaurian languages; e. g., sand is in Gaurian बालू, in Sanskrit it is बालुका, in Prákrit बाल्या; the Gaurian reduces the final आ of the latter to आ, and then contracts (by sandhi) the preceding with the final was to wa; thus giving us are the present Gaurian form. The process is in every respect like that by which the feminine termination \$\frac{\xi}{x}\$ is formed by the Gaurian (see above, p. 26). Again leech जल; in Sanskrit it is जलाका; in Prákrit जल्झा, which changes in Gaurian through the intermediate form जलु प्र to जलू. Again bear भाल, in Hindí masc.; but in Maráthí also feminine (see Manual, p. 36. e.); in Sanskrit it is भन्न or, with addition of the affix क, भन्नक or भान्नक, and in the low form भस्क or भास्क; all these forms occur; the fem. of them would be भासिका or भाज्का; the latter would be in Prákrit भज्जा, in the intermediate form

e. g. डाकुरीण feminine of डाकूर not डाकूरीण; परिटीण feminine of प्रीट; अतितीण feminine of आतीत; गर्ड़ीण feminine of गर्ड़; राजपुतीण feminine of राजपूत, etc. See Dadoba Pandurang's Mar. Grammar, pp. 36, 37. The reason, no doubt, is that the antepenultimate is not an originally long vowel, but only a Gaurian formation.

^{*} See note 5, p. 105, in the 2nd Essay; Journal Asiatic Society, Bengal, Vol. XLII, Part I, 1873.

[†] The sandhi of उ + आ to ज may also be explained, like that of द + आ to द, by the lengthening of उ to ज as a compensation for the shortening and quiescence of final आ.

মন্ত্ৰ ; and thus becomes in Maráthí भाज. Again, palate is নাজু or टाजु, masc. in Hindi, but fem. in Maráthí. In Sanskrit it is ताल which is neuter; but there is a bye-form made by the affix and this is also feminine, viz. तालुका; in Prákrit it becomes तालुबा, and in Gaurian, through the intermediate form ताल्य it becomes तालू or टालू. Again chalk is Sanskrit खटिका, in Prákrit it is खडिचा, but also खड्चा; for both forms occur as the bases of Gaurian formation. While the Hindí takes the form खिंड्या, and from it derives its form खड़ी, the Maráthí takes the form खड़्या and from it derives the form खड़.

From what has been said regarding the origin of the feminine nouns in द्रे and ज, it follows that these terminations are purely Gaurian formations. With this agrees the fact that all feminine nouns in \(\frac{1}{3}\) and \(\frac{1}{3}\) belong to the proper Gaurian element in all Gaurian languages, in other words, do not admit of an oblique form. Only the Maráthí presents a very few exceptional cases of feminine nouns in \overline{a} , which have an oblique form in \overline{a} . They are the following thirteen nouns, (see Manual, p. 36), স্থাক woman, ক louse, জনু, leech, जाक sister-in-law, टालू palate, तालू forehead, दारू spirits, पिसू flea, पेलू coil of rope, भाल bear, वालू sand, सास्त mother-in-law, स्त needle. probable origin of the final v of the oblique form of feminine nouns, I have already explained in Essay IV. Assuming that explanation to be correct, the oblique form in च of those exceptional feminine nouns in ज easily explains itself from the Prákrit. E. g., to बालू sand corresponds in Sanskrit बाल्का, in Prákrit बाल्या. Gen. of बाल्का is बाल्कायाः, in Prákrit बाल्याए. The latter form would change successively to बाल्बए, next to बाल्ए, finally to बाल्ने, which is the present form. Again, जल leech is in Skr. जले का., Prákrit जल्जा; the Gen. is Skr. जलीकायाः, in Prákrit जल्जाएे, and this would change successively to जल्बए, next to जल्ए,, and finally to जल्बे which is the present Maráthí oblique form of the word.

On the other hand, as regards feminine nouns in द्या and ज्बा, this termination has much more the character of a Prákrit formation; still in the Hindí-class Gaurian languages which, as has been shown in Essay III, possesses only a very small number of Prákritic nouns, (viz., the masculine nouns in আ), all the feminine nouns in হ্যা or ত্ৰা belong to the proper Gaurian element, and do not admit of an oblique form. As they have retained their direct form their Prákritic character almost entirely, (the Gaurian having added merely the euphonic connecting consonants य, व), there can be no doubt that they would have an oblique form in **v** in Maráthí. Hindí, as I have just remarked, they are very common. In the Ganwárí (or Low Hindí) especially, they may be heard as bye-forms of any feminine nouns in द्वे or ज, and there they are very frequently used; they are always employed when the thing expressed by the noun, is referred to as something known and determined (their use being analogous to that of the

articled noun); they are also employed to express contempt, or affection, or diminution.*

For this latter purpose only (with a very few exceptions enumerated above, as कृतिया bitch, दृद्धिया old woman, etc.), they are used in High-Hindí, where, therefore, their employment is very rare. E. g., जारवा, the bye-form of जारू wife, is used in the Ganwári in the place of जारू, but otherwise, if used at all it expresses a contemptible wife? So in High Hindí, जारी means a large stick, a pole; but जिर्था a small stick, and so forth. In erotic poetry, as may be expected, these feminine forms are very common; e. g., in the following verse of Akhtar,

मान फोर लिया करके बितयाँ॥
अव का हे न लगावत रे कितयाँ॥
गई तेरे फिराक में नी द अड़ियाँ
कहा कैसे कटे तुम बिन रितयाँ

Here इतियाँ, रितयाँ बितयाँ, are the dimunitives (in the plural) respectively of the feminine nouns बात word (Prákrit बना or बिन्या), इति breast (Prákrit इना or इनिया); रात night (Prákrit र्नी or रिन्या).

I proceed to the examination of the inflexional base of the masculine nouns. The direct form of the inflexional base of masculine nouns in अ, like that of the feminine and neuter nouns, may end in a twofold wise; viz. either in अ, as दूध milk, घाम heat, etc., or in आ, as किया done, घाड़ा, horse, etc. In High Hindi, Maráthí, Panjábí, and Bangálí, the termination आ

* Of these three meanings that of diminution is no doubt the original one, as it easily explains the other two. For general experience shows that in all languages, nouns are used in preference, in their diminutive form, to express affection or contempt. Moreover, it may be observed that in the speech of the uneducated, the diminutives are frequently used without any particular meaning attached to the diminutive form of the word. If with this fact be put together the further fact, that in Sanskrit diminutives (expressive of affection) are formed by means of the affix and that Prákrit, the source of the modern vernaculars, is the speech of the uneducated, the frequent, apparently meaningless, use of words formed with the affix an in Prákrit, and the extensive use of nouns in an or any, (and in Gaurian finds a natural solution, at the same time that the theory of the derivation of the Gaurian nominal termination from the Prákrit termination and the Skr. termination are receives a strong confirmation. As examples of the affix and being used in Skr. to form diminutives of endearment, I may quote the following from the Uttara Ráma Charitra,

देव लर्थतां। सभावयतु देवाः पुत्रकं देवः, i. e. king haste thee, deliver the queen's pet. or देव मोद्ख विजिधिना देवाः पुत्रकेण, i. e. king rejoice over the victory of the queen's pet.

Here पुचक is used with reference to an elephant, and alternates with the other word of endearment and which is also applied to the elephant occasionally. See Uttara Ráma Charitra Act III, pp. 96, 97. See also Bopp, Krit. Gramm der Skr. Sprache, p. 327 (under and an), 2nd Ed. In the 4th ed., the reference to diminutives has apparently been withdrawn.

appears slightly modified as आ. In the Braj Bháshá it is श्री, which is not a mere modification of \$1, but as I think (see below p. 37) rather a co-ordinate formation to ञ्रा. I have already noticed in Essay IV. that Sanskrit masculine nouns with a base in अक appear in Gaurian invariably with the termination च्या (or च्या), as Skr. घाटकः, Pr. घाड्चा, Gaurian घाड़ा or घाड़ा or घाड़ा, etc., while Sanskrit nouns with a base merely in , appear in Gaurian now as terminating in अ, now in ओ (आ or ओ). And remembering that in Prákrit any base in may, without change of meaning, add the affix a, and thus end in अक, we may conclude, that if a Sanskrit masculine noun with a base in sends in Gaurian in it must have previously assumed in Prákrit the base-form ending in अक; while if it ends in Gaurian in अ, it must have previously remained unchanged in Prákrit; e. g., Skr. युगल pair with a base युगल (i. e. in अ) may assume in Prákrit the simultaneous forms ज्यला or जञ्चले (lit. युगलक: i. e. with affix क); the former becomes in Gaurian जोड़, the latter जोड़े। (or जोड़ें।). Again, Sanskrit वीज seed may be in Prákrit both बीजं, or बीजंशं, (बोअअं); the former gives us the Gaurian बीज, the latter the Gaurian बीजा or विद्या. There is, perhaps, not a single Gaurian masculine noun in I (that is, of course, only among those derived through the Prákrit), which does not also occur (at least in Hindí) in the other form ending in आ or ओ or औ. The latter forms very often are only Low Hindí, but in not a few instances both forms are used in High Hindí too; e.g. अरेख and अरोना trust, भाँड and भाँडा earthen pot, भार and भारा load, जोड and जोड़ा pair, पृष्ट and पृष्टा titledeed, etc., etc. On the other hand, in some cases the form in visconfined to the Low Hindí and that in चा chiefly to the High Hindí, as notably in the part. pres.; e.g., करता saying is High Hindí, but कहन Low Hindí; High Hindí जगता belonging, Low Hindí ज्यात; High Hindí आता coming, Low Hindí आवत, etc. So also, as regards the adjectives, the High Hindí generally uses the ampler form in आ; but Low Hindí generally also the shorter form in M; as Low Hindí बड़ great, जँच high, High Hindí बड़ा, जँचा; but सच and सचा both in High Hindí, (Low Hindí साच or सांच) etc.

modification of the Prákrit उच्चा, and the Mar. neuter ऊँचे of the Prákrit उच्चां (उच्चं); the Maráthí and Hindí masculine ऊँचा must be a modification of the Prákrit उच्चा. For this is the only Prákrit form, which would yield us a Prákrit feminine उच्चिया and a neuter उच्चां.

This conclusion is confirmed by the fact, that Gaurian masculine bases in चा or चा, or चा, and neuter bases एँ, चाँ, जँ, etc., have an identical oblique form; viz., ending in चा in Maráthí, in ए in Hindí, Bangálí, Sindhí, and in चा in Gujarátí, Marwárí, Naipálí. For as the oblique form is identical with the Prákrit organic genitive, and as masculine and neuter bases of identical final sound have identical genitives, it follows that Gaurian masculine bases in चा, etc., and neuter bases in एँ, etc., must have the same oblique form, if they are derived both from an identical Prákrit base. Now they have an identical oblique form, hence they must be derived from an identical base. As regards the neuters in एँ, etc., it has been shown that their (Prákrit) base must be one in चा (= चक); hence the base of masculine nouns in चा, etc., must also be one terminating in चा (= चक). E. g., जैचा (masculine) and जैचे (neuter) have both the oblique form जैचा; the latter represents the Prákrit form उचा (which is the genitive singular of both उचा (masculine) and उचा (neuter). As उचा is the original of जैचे, it only remains that उचा must be the original of जैचा.

The termination is not the only modification of the Prákrit termination अन्तर. As a rule, when Prákrit has a hiatus, as in the case of अभा, Gaurian either inserts the semivowel य or व, or makes sandhí. In Hindí both alternatives occur; but the insertion of a semivowel is confined to Low Hindí and old Hindí, while the High Hindí knows only the sandhí Probably in other Gaurian languages, the forms with inserted semivowels may also be found. In Low Hindí, forms of both kinds occur; such as insert the semivowel व and such as insert the semivowel य्. former, as far as I know, occur only in Ganwari, and, probably, in all Low Hindí dialects of its class. But there they are very common; of every masculine noun in आ or आ a bye-form in अवा may be formed. E. g., we may say in Ganwari घाम or घामना heat, घाड़ा or घाड़ना horse, and so forth. The two forms घामवा and घे। इवा are formally identical; simply because they are both derived from a formally identical Prákrit base; viz. Sanskrit घर्मः becomes in Prákrit घामा or घामग्री, and these become in Gaurian घाम and घामवा resp.; Sanskrit घाटकः becomes in Prákrit घाड्या, and this becomes in Gaurian either by sandhi घाडा, or, by insertions of व्, घाडवा. The Prakrit words घामचा and घाडचा have a formally identical base; viz. घमें क and घाटक, formed by the affix क; hence they are also formally identical in Gaurian दामवा and दे। These ampler bye-forms generally convey the sense of definiteness or contempt; and in erotic poetry also of affection; as in the following Baiswárí verses of Akhtar:

श्रद लों में तोरे मंडरवा॥
रहँस रहँस गले लागूं पहरवा॥
इतनी अर्ज मोरी माना जी श्रख़तर॥
सास ननद की में चोरी पहरवा॥

मार्री कि हैं कगवा बो से॥ राजा की अटिरिया॥ कगवा बा से॥ जियरा डो से से॥

Here मंडरवा is the bye-form of मंडर hut, (Prákrit मंडलं or मंडलंबं); पहरवा bye-form of पहर hour, (Pr. पहरो, or पहरका, Sk. प्रहरः or प्रहरकः); कार्या bye-form of कार crow (Pr. कारो। or काराया). It has been already remarked in treating of the feminine nouns in द्या, that the final Prákrit long आ is protected by the inserted semivowel य. Another instance of this fact we observe here in the case of these Ganwari masculine nouns in अवा, where the final आ (for the Prákrit आ) has evidently been also preserved through the insertion of the semivowel a. We shall have some more oceasions to observe this effect of the insertion of the semivowels य or व, and to note the fact that an inserted य or व may proteet a final Prákritic long vowel, or diphthong, against the operation of the Gaurian law of reduction. It does not do so necessarily. Strictly the law is this: when the semivowel is inserted before the Prákrit final long vowel or diphthong, two alternative Gaurian forms are the result; one in which the final long vowel is preserved, and another in which it is reduced according to the ordinary Gaurian laws. Thus, if in the Prákrit form बाड्या the semivowel व is inserted, we get the two Low Hindí forms घाडवा or घाडव. In the form घाडव, according to a further Gaurian Law, the final specomes quiescent, and the result of this change is the vocalisation of a to s, which s next combines (by sandhi) with the preceding अ to औ; hence घाड्व becomes घाड़ी. Now these nominal forms in are in Low Hindí well known and regular alternatives They may be formed of any noun whatsoever; of the other forms in च्या. e. g. राम Rám, bye-forms रमवा or रसी; घर house, bye-forms घरवा or घरी, etc. They must not be confounded with the common Braj Bháshá forms in a, from which they can easily be distinguished, because the Low Hindí bye-forms in are always accented on the ultimate, while the Braj Bháshá main-forms in are never accented on the ultimate, but on the penultimate or antepenultimate; (2), because the Low Hindí forms in always shorten a long vowel in the penultimate syllable, while the Braj Bháshá forms never do so; (3), because the Low Hindí form corresponding to the Braj Bháshá main-form always ends in आ (or आ); e. g., Braj Bháshá main-form चोड़ी ghórau, Ganwárí main-form घाडा ghórā; but bye-form घाडा ghóraú. mark-worthy that the changes of the forms in sal and sal are clearly connected with the accent (that is not the Prákrit accent, but the Hindí

accent, or the stress which is laid on a particular syllable in pronouncing a Hindí word; what in prosody is called the ictus). The forms in अवा namely are accented on the ante-penultimate; thus रमवा is pronounced with the airesis or ictus on the first ă and thesis on the last ā, but the forms in आ are accented on the ultimate, thus रमा is pronounced rămaú. The fact is that when the final आ of रमवा is reduced, the accent is thrown forward on to the penultimate, that is, रमव is pronounced rămáva, and if the final ă be quiescent, the form becomes naturally रमा ramaú, as any one can convince himself by actual experiment.

Instances of the other kind of masculine form, which inserts not the semivowel च, but य, into the Prákrit termination अभा (instead of contracting it by sandhi into into into Braj Bhásha class of Low Hindi and in Maráthí. All the phenomena, which have been noticed in connection with the bye-form in अवा and आ, occur also in the case of these bye-forms in अया; thus, e. g., the Prákrit forms रामचा, with inserted य, will give the Gaurian form रमश, with the accent on the ante-penultimate (i. e., airesis on the first ă, and thesis on the last ā), if final आ be retained. But there is an alternative form, in which the final streduced to st, thus रमय;* here the accent falls on the penultimate ă, and the final अ becoming quiescent, the word becomes TH ramai, with the accent on the ultimate T. Both these double forms in अया and ऐ exist in Gaurian. But while the double forms in अवा and आ are both found in the Gaurian Low-Hindí, I believe it is only the form in twitch is found in the Braj Hindí, and on the other hand the form in ज्या appears to be confined to Maráthí. same name, e. g., which in Maráthí is रसया (or रस्या as it is customary to write), is in (the Braj) Hindí रमे; again Maráthí कच्चा is in Hindí कच्छे (Prákrit कण्डचें, Sanskrit क्रण्कः). I believe it is the custom in Maráthí, to suppress, in writing such word-forms, the initial अ of the affix अथा and join the य on to the final consonant of the base; thus रास्य for रासया, बाल्या for बाल्या, etc. This is merely a peculiarity of writing, which, in this case, is accommodated to the pronunciation; just as in Hindí some people write जाना for जानता, etc. In all Gaurian languages a short अ between two accented syllables (one airesis, the other thesis) is quiescent; and of course two different systems of writing may be followed, either the writing may be accommodated to the present pronunciation (as in Maráthí in this case), or to the etymology of the word. Perhaps it would be more consistent and more scientific to generally agree to follow the former method. There need be no fear of any obscuration thereby of the etymology of the word. But at all events uniformity should be observed; not some classes of words

^{*} In all these bye-forms the Maráthí retains the Prákrit ante-penultimate vowel unchanged, whereas in Hindí it is always shortened.

written by one method and others by another.* In Hindí (that is, modern Hindí), as I have already said, the bye-forms which insert the semivowel य, appear always as ending in ए; as रमें, कन्हें, etc. But in the oldest Hindí of the bard Chand-Bardáí, the intermediate and transitional form in अय (between अया and ए) is the only one which is met with, side by side with the neuter form in अयं, of which examples have been given in Essay IV. Exactly as there are neuters, like नमयं, अयानयं, in Chand, so has he also masculine nouns like लाइय iron (for High Hindí लाइा), क्रमय series (for High Hindí क्रम); as in the following verses—

* If a short systanding between two accented syllables, is followed by an inserted euphonie semivowel a, then it does not become altogether quiescent, but merely becomes attenuated to the indistinct neutral vowel, out of which all distinct vowels are supposed to have arisen and which is found in all modern languages, and, e. g., in English is generally written u; thus while Maráthí THUI or Braj THUI is pronounced Rámyá or Ramyá, the Ganwarí रमवा is pronounced Ram'vá or Ramvá. The observation of this rule, has led me to modify my opinion on the origin of the Maráthí Gcn. Sing. in and Hindí in v, which I discussed in pp. 87 to 94 of Essay IV (J. A. S. vol. XLII, Part I, 1873.). I stated there that the original of those endings might be either द्या or आया; and though the latter derivation appeared to be the more natural, I preferred the other, because it seemed to have more evidence in its favour. But the phonetic rule now noticed removes one of the elief difficulties in the way of stay being the original. And I would, therefore, now derive both the Maráthí gen. in un and the Hindí gen. in un from an original form in अथा. Thus the Prakrit gen. of सामुजं would be सान्याह and in the original Gaurian सान्या (for सान्याह), pronounced sónayà, (i. e. airesis on o, thesis on final à); here according to rule the medial sp becomes quiescent, i. e., the word is pronounced sónyà (सान्या), which is Maráthí; next $y\acute{a}$ changes to \mathbf{v} , and thus we obtain the Hindí form sone (सान). Now according to the Marathi custom (as noticed in the text) the quiescent जु is, in this case, invariably suppressed in writing; Mar. writes सान्या; but just as राम्या is a contraction of रामया, so सान्या is a contraction of सान्या. other hand the fact that the Maráthí gen. in वा may be spelled either as वा or as अवा, is also explained by the present rule. For before the semivowel a the medial a becomes merely neutral or indistinct, and therefore some will write it, others will omit it, according as it is more or less indistinctly pronounced by them. I may add here, another piece of evidence. A lcarned Maráthí (the Rev. Pandit Nehemiah Goreh) writes to me: "If the name TH (or any name) belongs to a respectable man, then it is pronounced, as if it had no final vowel. But if it belongs to an inferior person, such as a boy or a servant, etc., then it is pronounced रामा or राष्ट्रा. In names of females, if the word ends in आ, then in diminutive forms the आ is changed with द ; as दुर्गा into द्वारे." Observe that all three forms are identical, diminutives or depreciatives; and derived from Prákrit bases formed with the affix a, which also may have that meaning; now these Marathi forms in and a correspond to the ordinary Hindi forms in and and, hence, the latter are also derived from Prákrit bases formed with the affix an. These Hindí words, no doubt, have no diminutive meaning; but so have also those Prákrit bases generally no diminutive meaning.

साठि अंगुर लोहय कि स्निय। सकर सेसनागन सिर मिस्तिय॥ III, 66.

Again क्रमय समय विपरीत भय। उपन्रों नंतर षेद ॥ III, 52.

Again चाँकार् आदि प्रनम्य नम्य गृष्यं वानीय वंदे प्रयं। सिष्टं धारनधार्थं वसुमती लहीस चरनाश्रयं॥ I, I.

Or कोकिल भंकार अंव बन करयं॥ बर बंब्र विरष्षं। कपातयं नैव कलयिन्ति॥ I, 18.

The two last verses contain the examples धारनधार्यं (for High-Hindí धारनहारा), and कपात्यं (for High Hindí कपात्त, plural.)* The discussion of the oblique form of these masculine nouns in अवा and अथा I shall defer, till after we have passed in review all Gaurian masculine nouns, the final of which is formed by inserting a semivowel before the Prákrit termination ओ.

It has been stated that the more usual way of treating the Prákrit masculine termination अगा is not to insert the semivowel य or व, but to contract the words. This contraction (or sandhí) is made in a two-fold manner: either the vowel य is dropped and thus the termination अगा reduced to या, or the vowel य is retained and thus या contracted to या. The latter method is peculiar to the Braj Bháshá; the former is common to the other Low-Hindí dialects of that class. In High-Hindí both these harsh vowels (or diphthongs) are modified to the more agreeable long vowel या; e. g., gone is in Braj Bháshá गया, in Low-Hindí गया, in High-Hindí गया, for Prákrit गयथा, Sanskrit गतकः; again Sanskrit कियाः or amplified किप्यतकः said becomes in Prákrit कियाः, in High-Hindí कहा, or Sanskrit उचकः high becomes in Prákrit उच्चा, in Braj Bháshá उचा, in Low Hindí उचा, in High Hindí उचा. This seems to me a truer and simpler explanation of the Braj Bháshá termination या than that of taking it as a mere provincial broader pronun-

* The final anuswara in these two instances indicates, I believe, the plural; just as in Marathi the addition of a final anunasika is indicative of the plural; e. g. atlat of a house, but atlat of houses. If the semivowel a be not inserted, but sandhi made, we should have atlat, contracted atlat, a form which also frequently occurs in the old Hindi of Chand, and is still the usual form in Marwari; and which in the modern Hindi is modified to atlat. The final nasal of these plural forms is merely a deterioration of an original final a which is still preserved in the modern Low Hindi dialects; e. g.,

द्रन कही सब बनविसयन मिल मे। हि तुम पे पठाया है। Rájaníti, p. 30. and occurs frequently in the old Hindí of Chand, beside the plural forms in अयं and आं; e. g.,

सम ब्रह्मरूप या सबद कड़ं। क्यों उचिए कवियन कहें॥ I, 7.

i. e. "why should poets call it a réchauffé."

ciation of the common Low Hindí termination जा. For the Prákrit termination जा of which both जा and जा are modifications, contracts, as any one can test himself, if quickly pronounced, to जा, and not immediately to जा; and if it is necessary to consider either जा or जा as a modification of the other, and not both as direct modifications of जा, it appears to me the form जा must be considered as the more original of the two, as the immediate modification of the Prákrit जा, and जा, as a modification of जा.

In some Gaurian nouns the Gaurian termination at, the contraction of the Prákrit termination अभ्रो, is further reduced to the simple vowel ज; as in तह् pony, वटसङ traveller, भट्टू rice, याचकङ traveller, and others. is apparent from the fact that in Maráthí these nouns have an oblique form nouns in which is identical with the oblique form of masc. nouns in चा or चा in Gujarátí, Naipálí, Marwárí, as will be shown below. It is also proved by the fact, that some of these masc. nouns in sare also used, in Maráthí, as neuter nouns in ज, as तहूँ neuter or तहू masculine; and it has been shown in Essay IV that the neuter nouns in s which have, in Maráthí, an oblique form in आ, are derived from a Prákrit original in अश (= अकं); hence it follows that their corresponding masculine forms must be derived from a Prákrit original in अग्रा. E. g., assuming that वाटसरू stands for an original Gaurian वाटसरा or वाटसरा, and this for the Prákrit वाटसरञ्जा, what follows? The gen. of वाटसरञ्जा would be वाटसरञ्जस्म or वाटसर्ञास or वाटसर्ञाह; the latter, according to Gaurian rule of sandhi, would contract to वाटसरा (originally वाटसराइ), which is actually the oblique form of वाटसरू. Hence we may argue backwards that वाटम्ह is a contraction of वाटसरचा. Similarly, Prákrit महचा (Sanskrit महन: of भह) a title of brahmans, has genitive भट्ट अस्स, or भट्ट आस or भट्ट आह ; contracted in Gaurian भहा (originally भहार), which is the oblique form of भहू (see Dadoba's Mar. Grammar, §. 223); it follows that भट्ट is a contraction of भट्टेंगा.* There are a few other nouns of this class (viz. ending in ज, which ज is a contraction of the Prakrit termination अग्रा), which have an oblique form in वा or अवा. This is to be explained thus: that instead of contracting the Prákrit genitive termination अशाह by sandhí, the euphonic semivowel व has been E. g., Sanskrit भ्याल: or amplified भ्यालक: brother-in-law; Prákrit मालगा; Gaurian first माला or माला (Hindí), next (reduced) माल (Hindí) or माडू (Mar.). The gen. of the Prák. is साल्यस्स or साल्यास or साल्याह; the latter becomes in Gaurian, by inserting euphonic व, साडवा (originally साखवाह) or साञ्चा, which is actually the oblique form of the Maráthí word साडू, and thus proves the identification of साडू with the Prákrit सालग्री. Again, साकू bridge (for original Gaurian माका or साका) is a contraction of the Prákrit संकंश्रा or संकंशा, Skr. सङ्कास:; the gen. of the Prákr.

^{*} The Mar. भट्ट is a diminutive term of contempt; just as the Skr. भट्टकः

is संकँ असा or संकँ आस or संकँ आह; the latter becomes in Gaurian सांकवा* or साका (originally साकवार), which is the present oblique form of साकू. noticed already, the medial अ before the न has a neutral sound, and hence the spelling varies; sometimes it is written, sometimes it is suppressed. will be shown afterwards, Maráthí possesses also some other masculine nouns in ज which have an oblique form in वा, which, however, are derived from Prákrit originals in उद्या (= उका); and thus they differ from the masculine nouns of which we are treating here, whose oblique form ends in आ, and which are derived from Prákrit originals in अभा. There is a further class of Maráthí masculine nouns in s which have no oblique form at all. Now since the reduction of the Gaurian termination ने (for Prákrit न्या) to क is an altogether Gaurian one, while the contraction of the Prákrit termination चन्ना to ज is partly Prákritic,† I think, we may conclude that all Maráthí masculine nouns in s, which do not admit an oblique form, are derived from Prákrit nouns in अधा (or original Gaurian nouns in चा), and not from Prákrit nouns in उच्चा.‡

The oblique form of the Gaurian nouns in आ (क्रें। or औ।) ends either in चा or in या or in ए. The termination चा of the oblique form is common to the Gujarátí, Naipálí, and among Low-Hindí dialects, to the Ganwarí and Marwarí. The termination या is peculiar to Marathí; and the termination v to Sindhí, Panjábí, High-Hindí, and most Low-Hindí dialects of the Braj Bháshá class. E. g., घाडा or घोड़ा horse has in Gujarátí घाडा ना, in Mar. घाड्या चा, in Hindí घाडे का. The origin of these oblique forms has been fully discussed in Essay IV. Whatever has been said about the neuter oblique forms in आ, या and ए, applies of course, equally to the masculine oblique forms; viz., that they are derived from the Prákrit genitive of a base in अव, ending in अअसा; so, however, that the oblique form in आ is. derived from the Prákrit genitive termination अञ्चल by means of sandhí and the oblique forms in u and v (the latter being a mere modification of the former) by means of the insertion of the euphonic semivowel 2. (See note on page 56.) I have, however, to add as a further argument, which escaped my attention there, in support of the theory that the High Hindí termination v is merely a phonetic modification of the Maráthí termination या, the fact, that in Maráthí itself adjectives have a two-fold form of the

^{*} In this case the व of the Gaurian form might also be merely a phonetic modification of the म in the Prákrit संकसाह; just as Gaurian कुवार prince for Prákrit कुमारा.

[†] There are a few isolated traces of the contraction of the termination उद्यो to ज, in Prákrit already; as प्राप्त for प्राप्त्यो; सव्यक्ष् for सवस्त्रो; see note 5 to Essay IV, p. 105.

[‡] Such proper Gaurian (not Prákritic) nouns in क are more common in poetry; e.g., हित् (for हिनचें) friend, in Chand's verse:

इम देत सीष तुहि हितू होद ॥ XXVIII, 63.

termination of the oblique form, viz. in या and in ए; e. g., to a good boy is चाँगल्या or चाँगले मगल्या ला (See Manual § 75, 3. p. 39.) It will be sufficient here, merely to illustrate the theory by a few examples. Sanskrit viza: has the genitive घाटकस्य; Prákrit घाडग्रस्स or घाडग्राम or घाडग्राइ; in Gaurian the latter form is either contracted by Sandhi into aist (originally घाडाइ), which is the oblique form in Gujarátí, Naipálí, Marwárí; or by inserting य it becomes दे। इया (originally दे। इयाइ) or, as spelled in Maráthí (on account of the quiescence of the medial अ) घेड़्रा (originally घेड़्राह); and this, finally, contracts into चाड, the oblique form of the word in Hindí. Again Sanskrit वाटसरः or amplified वाटसरकः traveller is in Prákrit वाटसर्चा, and in Gaurian contracted वाटसरू. The genitive of the Prákrit base is वाटमरअस्म or वाटमरआस or वाटमरआह. The last form contracts by sandhi to वाटसरा (originally वाटसराइ), which is the present Marathi oblique form of the word. Again, Sanskin इतः or amplified कतकः done is in Prákrit किद्यो or किय्यो or केल्यो; in Gaurian (with inserted euphonic य) किया (Braj Bháshá), किया (Marwárí), किया (High Hindí), केला (Maráthí). The genitive of the Prákrit base is (कि अअस्स or कि अआस or) किञ्चाह or केल्ञाह; in Gaurian either 1., the euphonic य is inserted, thus किश्रया (originally किश्रयाह) or केलया (originally केलयाह); the latter is the present Maráthí oblique form (with the peculiar Maráthí spelling) केल्या; the former contracts the termination अया to ए, thus किए, which is the present Hindí oblique form (generally with the euphonic य) किये; or 2., Gaurian makes sandhi of the Prakrit form किञ्चाह; thus किञ्चा (originally किञ्चाह), which is the present Marwari oblique form (with euphonic य) किया.

It is peculiar to Panjábí, that it possesses a number of masc. nouns of the category, now under consideration, which end in बा, instead of बा, as in all other Gaurian dialects. Similarly, the oblique forms of these Panjábí nouns end in ए instead of ए, the termination common to all the Gaurian languages; e. g., shopkeeper is in Panjábí वाणीबा, while in Hindí it is वानिया or वनिया.* The oblique form in Panjábí is वाणीए, in Hindi वानिये. The Panjábí shows this final anunásiká occasionally also, in other kinds of nouns, both masc. and fem.; e. g., मांच or मांच mother, गाई cow, कांच crow. This anunásiká is, no doubt, identical in nature with the anunásiká which we have seen is found in the termination of the oblique form of Gujárátí neuter nouns in च. It may either be a mere provincialism and inorganic addition, or, as suggested in a note appended to Essay IV, it may be a sort of compensation for the elision of a consonant; e. g., in वाणीबा for the elision of a contained in the original वाणिजका; in मांच or मांच either for the consonant

^{*} In Maráthí बाणी; the difference is this: the Hindí and Panjábí are derived from the Skr. बाणिजक:, Prák. बाणिज्ञो; contracted to वाणीजा or बाणिवा; but the Maráthí form is derived from the Skr. वाणिजः, Pr. वाणिजा, contracted into वाणी; see below page 42, 5.

त् or क् of the original माहका (see below page 42, 4.); in गाई, of the consonant क् of the original गाविका; in काउँ of the consonant क् in the original काकः, though in the latter word perhaps the anunásiká might be a substitute for the nasal w of the noun काण, which also means crow.

In Essay IV, it has been stated that the termination san of bases formed with the affix क, is sometimes modified into इक, and sometimes to ভক, and it has been shown how by these means some Maráthí neuter nouns in \$\frac{2}{3}\$ and \$\frac{2}{3}\$ arose. By an exactly analogous process of base-modification, masculine nouns in ई and ज seem to have arisen. The principle which I shall attempt to illustrate is, that the Gaurian termination & of masc. nouns is derived from the Prákrit termination द्वा; and the Gaurian termination ज of masc. nouns from the Prákrit termination उद्यो. But both Prákrit terminations द्या and चञ्चा may arise in various ways: 1. The termination अक (i. e. अ + क) of a base may be modified to द्क or उक, whence the nom. sing. would be in Skr. द्वाः or चकाः, in Prák. द्वा or चकाः; thus: Skr. प्रतिबासक (amplified from प्रतिवास) becomes प्रतिवासिक ; nom. sing. प्रतिवासिकः ; Pr. पड्वासिओ; Gaur. पड़ोसी (Hindí.)* Again, Skr. पिञ्चाकारक becomes पिञ्जाकारिक; nom. sg. Skr. पिञ्जाकारिकः, Pr. पिञ्जाञ्चारिञ्चा or पिजारिञ्चा; Gaur. पिंजारी Mar.† Again Skr. प्रहारक watchman; nom. sg. प्रहारकः, Pr. पहार्श्रा Gaur. पहरा, (Hindí) or पहारा (Mar.); but the base becomes also प्रहारिक, nom. sg. प्रहारिकः, Pr. पर्हारिश्रो ; Gaur. (Low Hindí) पर्री (or पर्हरिया) ; moreover the base becomes also प्रहारक; nom. प्रहारकः, Pr. पहार्था, Gaur. (Hindí) पहरू (or पहरूवा or पहरूचा). Again, सापक barber (Skr. नापित); nom. sg. स्तापकः, Pr. एहावन्रा, Gaur. (Hindí) न्हावा; the base becomes also स्तापिक, nom. sg. स्तापिकः, Prák. एहाविद्या or नाविद्या (sce Şubhá Chandra III, 50. Hema Chandra I, 230.) or नाइचा; Gaur. (Mar.) न्हावी, or (Hindí) नार ; the base becomes moreover स्नाप्क, nom. sg. स्नाप्क:, Prák. एहा वुन्ना or नावुओ or नाउओ; Gaur. (Mar.) न्हाऊ, or (Hindí) नाऊ.‡ Compare Skr. सङ्कः a kind of sweetmeat, in Prák. सङ्खा, which is in Gaurian (Hindí) लडु or (Mar.) लाडू.

2. The base may be one formed by the affixes दक or उक (which, however, are probably mere modifications of the affix अक, so that the examples

^{*} See Hema Chandra I, 26, Subha Chandra II, 43, where प्रतिमृत् is said to be in Prákrit पहंसुद्धा; Pr. Pr. IV, 15, has पहिंसुदं.

[†] Or Skr. पिञ्जिकाकारकः, Pr. पिंजिआआरखो or पिंजिआरखो; Gaur. पिंजियारा or पिंजियारा (Hindí.)

[‡] The derivation of this word from the Skr. ह्वापक is quite clear from the Prákrit initial पह. The servant who attended his master at his bath and shaved him, was called ह्वापक. The Skr. नापित is probably a clumsy transliteration of the Prákrit title नाविश्वा; or else a corruption of the base ह्वापिट, which would be an equivalent of ह्वापक, as suggested in M. Williams' Skr. Lexicon.

under this head, would in reality not differ from those under the former). Thus मालिक from माला+इक gardener (commonly मालिन); nom. sing. मालिक; Pr. मालियो; Gaur. माली. Again नाम्बूलिक from नाम्बूल betel + इक vender of betel; nom. sing. नाम्बूलिक; Pr. नांबूलियो; Gaur. नांबूली (or नांबाली). Again नीलिक from नेल + इक oilman; nom. sing. नीलिक:, Prák. नेलियो (see Subha Chandra IV, 95. Hema Chandra II, 98.); Gaur. नेली Hereto might also be referred the Hindí पड़ोमी neighbour from Skr. प्रतिवासिक (for the more usual प्रतिवासिक), and पहरी watchman from Skr. प्रहरिक (for the more usual प्रहरिक), which have been already noticed under No. 1. Again टिसक scorpion, nom. sing. Skr. टिसक:, but Prák. विक्यो or विक्यो (see Pr. Pr. I, 15.) or विक्यो; Gaur. (Hindí) विक्य, or, (Mar.) विंचू, or (Nai-pálí) विक्यी. Similarly प्रवासिक neighbour Skr. प्रवासिक: (more usually प्रवासी of प्रवासिक); but Prák. पवासुओ (Subha Chandra II, 53.) or प्रवास (see Subha Chandra II, 8. Hema Chandra I. 44.) Again, चुलक handful (of चुल + उक), nom. sing. Skr. चुलुक:, Pr. चुलुओ; Gaur. चुलू.

- 3. Just as the affix क may be added to bases in आ, so it may be added also (though less usually) to bases in द and उ; hence a base in दक or उक arises; e. g., कवि or amplified कविक poet, nom. sing. कविकः, Pr. कविधा; Gaur. (Hindí) कविधा. Again, गुर or amplified गुरक teacher; nom. sing. गुरकः, Prák. गुरचा; Gaur. (Gamw.) गुरवा. Again, कटु or amplified कटक pungent, nom. sing. कटकः, Pr. कड्चा, Gaur. कड्वा (or कड्डा.) In Hindí these forms are almost altogether confined to the Low-Hindí dialects. and are always formed by inserting the euphonic semi-vowel in the Prákrit termination. The Gaurian contracted forms in दे and ज of this kind of nouns hardly ever occur. In High Hindí these nouns are used almost always in their simple form, without the affix क; thus कवि poet, nom. sing. Sk. कविः Pr. कवी, Gaur. (reducing final long दे) कवि; गुर teacher, nom. sing. Skr., गुरः, Pr. गुरः; Gaur. गुरः, etc.
- 4. The Prákrit affix क may also be added to bases in च्र. The vowel च्र changes in Prákrit to द (according to the general rule, Pr. Pr. I, 28. and special rule, Subha Chandra II, 90. Hema Chandra I, 135.), whence we obtain Prákrit bases in द्य; or it changes to च (see special rule, Subha Chandra II, 88. 89. 90. Hema Chandra I, 131, 134, 135,), whence we get Prákrit bases in च्य. Thus Skr. भार or amplified भरक brother nom. sing. भरका; Prák. भारचो (i. e. भातिको), or भाचचो (i. e. भातिको); Gaur. (Hindí) भादे or (Mar.) भाज. Again Skr. भार or amplified भारक mother; nom. sing. भारका; Prák. भारचा (i. e. भातिका) or भाचचा (i. e. भातिका,) Gaur. (Hindí, Panjábí) भाद, or (Panjábí) भाज. Again Skr. भन्न or amplified भन्न भक grandson; nom. sing. भनभक:; Prák. भण्नचो ; Gaur. ५ एक्ट्र (Mar.).
- 5. There are miscellaneous Sanskrit bases which, though they contain some other consonant (not क), also yield in Prákrit a base in द्य or उग्र;

e. g., Skr: बाणिज, nom. sing. बाणिजः, Prák. बाणिजे; Gaur. बाणी (Mar.). Again, गेडम, nom. sing. गडमः, Prák गेडमी or गेडँजो; Gaur. गेह्रँ.

It will have been seen from these examples that the Prák. nom. sing. in दुओ or जुओ of the bases in दुञ्ज and जुञ्ज, assume in Gaurian a double form: viz. either a form in ई and ज, or one in इया and जरा. For here again, as everywhere, the two Gaurian phonetic laws come into play; viz. of obviating the Prákrit hiatus either through the insertion of the connecting semivowels व or य, or through the contraction of the two hiatus-vowels in sandhi. Those forms which are made by inserting the connecting semi-vowels **a**, or व, are very common in Gamw. and in the Low Hindí generally, where they may be formed as alternative forms of any noun in \(\xi\) or \(\sigma\), very often without any difference in meaning. The connecting semi-vowel a is used for nouns in ई, and the connecting semi-vowel व for nouns in ज.* E. g., gardener is in Ganwari both माली and मिल्या, † i. e. the Prakrit is मालिया, in which the Gaurian inserts य between द and का, and thus protects and preserves the Prákrit final चा (or चा). Again, watchman is पहरू or पहरी or पहरूबा or पहरिया; i. e. the Prákrit is पहार्था or पहारिया, and the Gaurian, by inserting व and य, पहरवा and पहरिया. Then again, the inserted semi-vowels य and व protect the final Prákritic आ.‡ So again brother is both भाई and भाइया. Sometimes these nouns in इया and उवा (like the feminine nouns with the identical termination) imply, as distinguished from the nouns in & and

- * Rarely, also च् is inserted in the Prák. termination उञ्च ; e. g., गुर्य in the opening line of Chand's Epic, च्रोँ कार आदि प्रनम्य नम्य ग्रयं वानीय बंदे प्रयं॥
 - † The antepenultimate is shortened according to a peculiar Ganwari law.
- In poetry the final long I is often found shortened for metre's sake; e.g., in the following verse (kavitta) of Chand,

कहें किन सम कना। तना पावन बड़ कि ब्विय॥ तना मना उचार। देवि दरसिय सिका हि ब्विय॥ तना बीर उपना। रंग राजत सुष दाइय॥ बाल केल प्रत्यंग। सुर्ति उदिर किविताइय॥ I,7,

We have here कविय for कविया (Pr. कविश्रा, Skr. कविकः); इविय or इविया (Pr. इविश्रा, Skr. इविश्रा); दाइय for हाइया (Pr. दाइश्रा, Skr. दाढकः); कविताइय for कविताइया. The full form is also met with, when the metre admits, as in the following (उमरी) of Akhtar—

निर्देय ग्राम ने कूय लिई। पनघट पे ठाडी गूजरिया॥ पग घरत घरत लट पलट गया॥ कूए पर गागर उलट गया॥

कर पकरत कंगन उक्ट गथा। चल भार दे अख़तर दाँकरिया॥ Here बाँकरिया (Pr. वंकरियो, see Pr. Pr. IV, 15) false has kept the final long आ to

rhyme with the femin. गूजरिया.

ज, definiteness or affection or contempt. In High Hindí, they are rarely used, and when used, then only to express contempt or affection (as भइया dear brother) or diminution (as जुटिया a small pot.) There are, however, a small number of masc. nouns in इया, which are, altogether incorporated into the High Hindí, and of which no alternative form in ई exists at all; as भेडिया wolf and a few others.* Otherwise, the usual form of such nouns in High Hindí as well as in the other (literary) Gaurian languages, is that in ई and ज.

The process by which the Prákrit terminations द्या and उद्या are turned into दे and क in Gaurian, is one altogether analogous to that by which the Prákrit feminine terminations द्या and उद्या are turned, in Gaurian, into दे and क. It has been already fully explained. Its application to masc. nouns will be best shown by a few examples; e. g., Skr. दिखाः scorpion becomes in Prákrit विक्या or विक्या or विक्या; in Gaurian, by one of its laws, the final चा is reduced to उ or अ, thus विक्या or विक्या; next, by another Gaurian law, the final hiatus-vowels are contracted by sandhi; thus we have the forms विक्य (Hindí), विंचू (Mar.), and विक्या (Naip.) Again, Skr. भाता or amplified भादकः brother; Prák. भादचा or भावचा; in Gaur., through the intermediate stage of भादच and भाउच, they become भाद and भाज. Again, Skr. भहरी, Pr. पहरिचा or पहरचा; in Gaur. first पहरिच and पहरूच, next पहरी and पहरू, etc.

The correctness of this theory of derivation of the Gaurian masculine nouns in \(\xi\) and \(\xi\), receives strong support from the oblique form, which most nouns in \(\xi\) and a few nouns in \(\xi\) admit in Maráthí. Most nouns in \(\xi\) do admit an oblique form; while most nouns in \(\xi\) do admit one. This is quite in order; for, as I have shown in a former place, the termination \(\xi\) is generally an altogether Gaurian formation, being a reduction of the original Gaurian termination \(\xi\), itself a contraction of the Prákrit termination \(\xi\). On the other hand, the Gaurian termination \(\xi\) is a partly Prákritic formation, being an immediate contraction of the Prákrit termination \(\xi\) is in those few nouns which admit an oblique form, is a partly Prákrit formation, being an immediate contraction of the Prakrit termination \(\xi\) an immediate contraction of the Prakrit termination.

The oblique form of the masculine nouns in ई terminates in या; that of the masculine nouns in ज in वा; e. g., माली gardener has genitive मालाचा; न्हावी barber, genitive न्हायाचा; भाज brother, genitive भावा चा; विंचू scorpion, genitive विंचाचा, etc. It has been stated already, that the Skr. टियक: becomes in Prákrit विंकुओ; the genitive is in Sanskrit टियकस्प, in Prákrit विंकुआस or विंकुआस; in Gaurian the latter becomes

^{*} The reason of this exception is plain; it is simply to avoid confusion; e.g., He wolf; the short form of He could not be distinguished from He sheep, except by the gender the former being masc., the latter feminine. He are means literally the sheep-catcher.

contracted by sandhi (according to Gaurian law) to विक्रा (originally विक्राह) or, as it is spelled in Maráthí (according to a peculiar Maráthí phonetic law*), विंचा. Again, Sanskrit लडुक: sweetmeat, Prákrit लडुका, has in the genitive Sanskrit लड्डुकस्य, Prákrit लड्डुअस्मा लड्डुआस or लड्डुआह ; in Gaurian the latter is contracted to जाड़ा (originally जाड़ाह). From the analogy of these, we may conclude that other nouns in swhich have an oblique form in বা, must also be derived from Prákrit nouns in ভথা (i. e. bases in ভকা); and their oblique form in वा is merely a phonetic modification of the Prákrit genitive. Thus the oblique form भावा must be derived from a Prákrit noun भाउओ brother (for भातुओ, Sanskrit भाटक); the genitive of भाउचो is भाउच्यस or भाउचार or भाउचार, the latter contracted in Gaurian becomes भावा (originally भावाइ); similarly, पणतू must be derived from the Prákrit noun पणनुचा (for प्रनप्तकः); the genitive of it is पणनुचास or पणनुचास or पण्तात्राह, which in Gaurian is contracted to पण्ला (originally पण्लाह), the present Maráthí oblique form of the word. Now we know from the Prákrit grammarians that these Prákrit nouns भाजश्रा, पण्तुश्रा, etc., really do exist. Thus also Sanskrit ग्राध्नाः wheat, Pr. ग्राइंग्रा (or ग्राइमा); Gaurian ग्रेहं (Hindí) or गहाँ (Maráthí) ; genitive Prákrit गांड असा, or गांड आस or गांड आह ; Gaurian contracted गर्हा (originally गर्हाइ), which is the present oblique form of the Maráthí word. All these oblique forms are occasionally spelled so, as to separate the semivowel व from its conjunct consonant; thus विंचा or विंचवा; पणला or पणतवा; गङ्गा गह्वा; because in the case of the semivowel a, there is a tendency in all the Gaurian dialects, to sound the neutral vowel before It should be noted, moreover, that in the case of all oblique forms in बा of such nouns in ज, the termination ज of which is a modification of the Prákrit termination उग्रा, the conjunction of व with the base consonant is the more original and correct spelling. But in the case of all oblique forms in at of such nouns in s, the termination s of which is a modification of the Prákrit termination अभा, the separation of व from the base consonant is the better way of spelling.

The analogy of the masculine nouns in ज leads us further to conclude that also the masculine nouns in दे which admit an oblique form in या, must be derived from a Prákrit base-form in द्य (द्क), the genitive of which, ending in द्यास or द्यास or द्यास, is modified into the oblique form in या, and the nominative of which ending in द्या, is modified into the direct form in दे. To this may be added a further argument, that the genitive of the only other kind of Sanskrit or Prákrit base which might have come into con-

^{*} Maráthí has generally an unaspirate mute consonant, where the Hindí and Prákrit show an aspirate one; e.g., Skr. इसी, Prak. इसी, Hindí हाथी, Mar. हाती; Skr. स्मिन्धं, Prak. सिस्धं, Hindí सीथ, Maráthí सीत; Skr. दक्तिः Pr. विंद्रुचा; Hindí बिच्चू, Mar. विंचू, etc.

sideration (viz., the base in इन् with a nominative in ई and genitive in इनः) cannot well be the original of the oblique form of the nouns in \(\xi\). E. g. माली gardener, might at first sight be supposed to be identical with the Sanskrit and Prákrit noun माली, nominative singular of the base मालिन; but then, the genitive of that noun is Sanskrit माजिनः, Prákrit माजिए।, which form (i. e. मालिए) could not well have been the original of the oblique form माखा (Mar.) of the Gaurian noun माली; for it would be necessary to assume the elision of the nasal wand the change of the final at to II, both phonetic modifications, otherwise without precedent.* But besides मालिन, the Sanskrit and Prákrit have another base with the identical meaning, viz. मालिक. The genitive of this base would be Skr. मालिकस्य, Prák. सालि असा or मालिआस or मालिआह; Gaur. (contracted) माल्या (orig. मान्याइ), which is the present oblique form of the Gaurian noun मानी. Hence it follows necessarily that the Gaurian direct form माली, must be also a modification of the nom. sing. of the base मालिक, i. e. Skr. मालिकः, Prák. मालिया. Similarly the Gaurian noun तेली oilman must be derived from the nom. sing. तेसिया (Skr. तेसिकः) of the base तिस्क ; for its oblique form तेल्या leads us back to a Prák. genitive तेलियार or तेलियास or तेलियस, belonging to the nom. तेसिया (not to तेसी of तेसिन).

It remains to examine the oblique form of those masculine nouns which by means of inserting the semivowel य or व have preserved the Prákrit termination आ, and therefore terminate in अवा, अथा, दया, जवा.

In High Hindí (not in Low Hindí, where they may be used without any appreciable modification of meaning) and in Maráthí, these nouns are commonly used to express *smallness* (and hence affection or contempt†).

* Prákrit final आ is in Gaurian always reduced to ज or (quiescent) आ; but Prákrit आआ (अकः) contracted to Gaurian ओ or आ.

† In the manual these nouns are not noticed at all. Dadoba in his grammar notices those in श्वा (i. e. अथा) only, see page 274. But the others do also occur occasionally. Molesworth in his Mar. dictionary mentions, e. g., विच्वा (i. e. विच्वा) sharp, a small dagger (of विच् scorpion), corresponding to Hindí विक्वा or विक्वा. Another means of forming these affectionate or contemptive diminutives is the affix इं, हो, हे (Mar.) or रा, रो, रे (Hindí). So, e. g., in the Low Hindí verse—

माई री कहीँ कगवा बाले॥ राजा की अटरिया॥ कगवा बाले॥ जीअरा डोलेरे॥

Here we have the diminutives **काग**वा crow (काग) and **अट**रिया pinnacle (अटरी), of the one kind; and मार्रो mother (मार्), जीअरा soul (जीअ or जी), डोलेरे palpitates (डोले), of the other kind. Regarding the Mar. diminutives in डा, see Dadoba, p. 272. Manual, pp. 113, and 34.

Their oblique form ends in High Hindí and the Low Hindí dialects of the Braj Bháshá class in ए; that is, their termination changes to अवे, अथे, इथे, चवे; e. g., कड्वा bitter, gen. कड्वे का; - भेड़िया wolf, gen. भेड़िये का; - पहरवा watchman, gen. पहरुवे का,* --कागवा small crow, gen. कागवे का; -- लुटिया small pot, gen. ल्टिये का ; -विक्वा small dagger, gen. विक्वे का. But in Maráthí and in the Low Hindí dialects of the Ganwari class the oblique form of these nouns end in IT, that is the termination remains unchanged to outward appearance; e. g., the Mar. राम्या small Rám; gen. राम्या चा (i. e. रामया चा); Ganw. घोड्वा horse, gen. घोडावा की; लोटिया drinking pot, gen. लोटिया कै; पहरवा watchman, gen. पहरवा कै, etc. This circumstance, however, should not mislead to the conclusion that the oblique and direct forms are (formally) identical; that is, that in Gaurian these nouns belong to the proper Gaurian element. That this is probably not the case, but that the identity of the terminations of the oblique and direct forms is merely the accidental result of phonetic modifications, is sufficiently indicated by the fact that those terminations are different (i. e. आ and v) in the other Low Hindí dialects. According to the method previously explained, these oblique forms would originate thus; e. g. the genitive of the Prákrit भेडिओ would be भेडिश्रम् or मेडिश्राम or भेडिश्राम ; the latter form becomes in Gaurian, by inserting the euphonic semivowel य, भेडिया (originally भेडियाइ), which is the oblique form of the word in Ganwari; next, the final या is contracted into ए, thus भेडिए or (with euphonic य inserted) भेडिये, and this is the oblique form of the word in High Hindí and Braj Bháshá.

In conclusion, I will again add tables, exhibiting at a glance the results arrived at in this essay and the previous one.

In the next essay (VI), I propose to examine an old Hindí oblique form of an altogether different kind from those hitherto discussed; viz. the oblique forms in \mathfrak{T} and \mathfrak{T} .

^{*} These three nouns are also High Hindí, and not diminutive; भेड़िया is derived by means of the affix इक from भेड़ sheep; just as माली gardener from माला garland and इक.

I.—TABLE.*

On bases in भ, द, ज;

Showing the phonetic changes of nominal terminations in Sanskrit, Prákrit, and Gaurian.

A.—Masculina.

	Gaurian.	(স্থান্থ), স্থা M.	(इंह), दे M.	(जह), ज M. J.
Genitive or Oblique Form.	Prákrit.	असा, आस, आह,	इस्स, (ईस, इंह)	उस, (जस, कह)
Gen	Skr.	अस	;	一 。 二
Nominative or Direct Form.	Gaurian.	{ ▼ S. and poet. H. ▼ H. M. G. P. N.	(\$\ \text{old H.} \) (\text{\text{\$\ \text{\$\ \text{\$\ \text{\$\ \text{\$\ \\ \text{\$\ \\ \text{\$\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \	(verification of the control of t
Nominati	Prák.	खें ^भ	che	ित
	Skr.	लं	į.	Ö

* H. = Hindí; M. = Maráthí; P. = Panjábí; G. = Gujarátí; N. = Naipálí; S. = Sindhí; Br. = Braj Bháshá; Mr. = Marwárí; Gw. = Ganwárí; A. = Alwarí. All forms inclosed in brackets are theoretical and hypothetical.

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e M.	₹ M.	ज M. hypoth.)	$\left(\vec{\varsigma} \in \right) \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \dot{\varsigma} & \dot{M}. \end{array} \right.$		$(\vec{\mathbf{a}} \vec{\mathbf{e}}) $ \Rightarrow \mathbf{M} . hypoth.			(স্থান্থ), স্থা M.	(ई ह) ई M.)	(화로), জ M.)
जाए, जाइ	इ.ए. इ.इ.	जर, जर	इस्स, (ईस, ईह)	क्रं ते द	टस्स, (जस, जह)	जर, जद	C.—Neutra.	अस्त, यास, याह	इस्, (ईस, इंह)	उस, (जस, जह)
জাঘাঃ	হা:	(वाः	; (d	याः	(अंगः or	<u>वाः</u>	0	स्ट स्व	(दलः	वं
ч н. м. Р. G. N.	(天), 琴 H. M. P. G. N.	(코) 잭 H. P.	(द) अ H. M. P. G. N.		d H H (P)			₹ H. M. P. G. N.	द्र old. н. ज्ञ н. м. Р. G. N.	(ব) প্র
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II.—TABLE.

On bases in \, \(\varepsilon \), \(\varepsilon \),

Showing the derivation of Gaurian nominal terminations from Prákrit and Sanskrit.

Nom. or Direct Form. Gaurian.	ect Form. Prák. Skr.	Skr.	Gaurian	Gen. or Oblique Form. Prákrit.	lue Form.	Remarks.
M. • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	त्रं सं	लं लं	স্থা (স্থান্ <u>হ)</u> স্থ	आह, आस. अस	শু পূ	

		fem. in Gaurian, but mase.			fem. in Gaurian, as well	as in Skr. and Prák.						1		neutr. in Maráthí, but masc. in all other Gaurian dialects.	
	4			, Þ	वाः			आया:		वं				क्र	
B.—Feminina.	(इंह, ईस), इस्स			(इंह, दंस), इस्स	**************************************			बाद, आए		15. 15. 15. 15. 15. 15. 15. 15. 15. 15.			C.—Neutra.	(आह, आस) अस्स	
	٩٠ (بعر) (بعر)	क्र	ন্ধ	क्र (इस		क्र	ন	Þ⁄	स्त	^o lw	ल	TA		आ (आह)	
	ļvis	lus.	Ö	lvr		iv	Ö	A A	AH THE	c fore	ulvi	15		` म 'स	
	vive	· hv	চ	olas		clus	恆	T T	ख	Uhri	olur	15		ं क्रि	
	M. W, (₹)	H. P. G. N. 考(至)	H. P. ज, (उ)	M. भ (द)		H. P. G. N. अ (इ)	H. P. 잭 (코)	M. A	H. P. G. N. अ	M. अ (इ)	H. P. G. N. अ (द)	н. Р. ज (उ)		M.	

III.—TABLE.

On bases in \(\mathbb{A}, \mathbb{E}, \mathbb{G}. \)
Examples to Tables I and II.

,	,			
Genitive or Oblique Form.	Gaurian.	(घामाह), घामा M. घाम H. P. G. N.	(खागीह), आगी M. आग H. P. G. N.	ৰাক্ত hypoth. M. ৰান্থ H. P. G. N.
Genitive o	Prák.	धमास धमाम धमाह	(अगिस् (अगोस) (अगोह)	(ৰাক্তম্ম (ৰাক্তম্ (ৰাক্তম্
	Skr.	(घमेस्य	असः	बाह्
η.	Gaurian.	घाम masc.	(बागि) आग fem.	 (बाङ) बाद H. fem.
Nom. or Direct Form.	Prák.	घसो	अमी	ब ब
Nom. or I	Skr.	क्षं	बागः	ब इ
	Base.	धम् in	अभि in इ	बा गा
	No.	i.	લં	က်

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जीमे M. जीम H. P. G. N.	विह्मिणी M. विह्नि H. P.	सास hypoth. м. सास н.	(मौँ तीह) } मौँ ती M. मौँ त H.	जग्रह } जग्र theor. M. जन्म H. देख P.
जिक्रायाः (जिन्धमार्)	भगिन्याः { भद्णोद	अथाः सम्मर्	(和前 (如 (如 (如 (如 (如 (如 (如	इत्राः जम्म etc. रह्याः जम्म्
मा	(बहोए M. (बहिन H.	{ M. { 417 H.	म	্ ভাষা M. জন জন H. জন কুনি P.
जिहा (जोहा ठा जिहा	सगिनी भद्रणी	े स र र र र र र र	सितिः सिती	र याः (त क्षेत्र (त क्षेत्र
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स्टब्स् sa sa	रहेम	र्ष.	<u>ब</u> र्	रहस्य	वरास वरास	(घराह) घर M. घर H. P. G. N.
अति in	आत	आकिं (आच्हिं)	(च्रैाचि) च्रांख fem.			अंखि H. (not used in M.)

Notes to Tables I, III. IIII.

Note 1.--Observe that the final of every noun, whatever its gender or termination in Prákrit (or Sanskrit) may be, in Gaurian the Sanskritic nouns कवि poet, प्रभु lord, ध्वनु sound, नदी river, नघ wife, etc., instead of the Prákritic ones becomes in Gaurian . This circumstance and the confusion to which it must necessarily have given rise, explains the two following facts: viz. (1) almost all mase. and neuter nouns with a base in ξ or ϑ and fem. nouns with feminine bases in § or ज, which came into the Gaurian through the Prákrit, have now disappeared from the Gaurian, and have been re-introduced into it directly from the Sanskrit. When thus introduced, they retain their final $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ or $\boldsymbol{\exists}$ (only rejecting the visarga or anuswára), and to and this can easily be distinguished from other nouns. Thus we have क्ब, पह, कल, नज or नय, वह, which have disappeared. The old Hindí of Chand has still पज्ज for प्रमु, and वह is preserved in unie daughter-in-law, for yaau

and Skr.; are arm (base ars) fem. in Gaurian, but masc. in Prák. and Skr., etc. It may be asked, how is it, that in order to obtain uniformity of gender, all mase. and neuter nouns turned into fem., instead of all fem. and neuter nouns 2.—Those few masc. and neuter nouns with a base in 7 or 3, which have one into the Gaurian through the Prákrit and still remain in it, have changed their gender, namely, they have become feminine. Such are the Prákritic nouns arm fre (base 氧铂), fem. in Gaurian, but masc. in Prák. and Skr.; 氧菌 eye (base 氧铂) fem. in Gaurian, but neuter in Prák.

theft, feminine for the Prákrit neuter चारियं (Skr. चायं); or पानी water (for पानीं) masculine for the Prákrit neuter पाणियं few masc. and neuter nouns. A similar result happened in the case of the neuter nouns in किं, कें, रें; when these dropped (as in the modern Hindí, Panjábí, etc.) their final anunasiká, and thus their termination (琴1, 禹. 文) became identical with bruning into mase., which at first sight might appear the more natural course. The reason, I believe, is that by far the greatest majority of bases in ξ and $\overline{\varsigma}$ are feminine (e. g., all those in $f\overline{\varsigma}$), while there are comparatively only very few mase, and neuter bases in \ and \ a. Hence the preponderating influence of the fem. nouns assimilated the gender of the those of masc. and fem. nouns, the influence of the latter assimilated their gender; thus we have Hindi चारी (for चारी

but in ज ; thus, जश sugarcane has gen. जशा चा, just as घाम heat has gen. घामा चा, as if its original base had not been इचु, Maráthí, it appears, those exceptional feminine nouns in a form their oblique form anomalously in at, following the Maráthí has बाही; while Hindí has सास mother-in-law from base 署案, Maráthí has सास from base 署等和, etc. In Note 2.—Feminine nouns in , derived from mase. or fem. bases in , or from fem. bases in , are very rare in body (base तनु feminine), the Marathí has तनू from base तनुका; while Hindí has बाह arm feminine (from base बाड masc.), analogy of the Maráthí masc. and neuter nouns in A, and forgetting that their original (Sanskrit) base was not one in A, but 天司. To judge from the analogy of the Maráthí fem. nouns in 哥 with bases in 天, the oblique form of fem. nouns in ज्य with bases in ज, if regular, ought to have ended in ज; thus जस ought not to have an oblique form जशा, but जश्र, Prák. Maráthí. There most of these nouns exist only with the amplified base, made by the affix a; thus while Hindí has and उक्ह, उक्म) उक्स or उक्र.

take, e. g., बार of base बदरी jujube tree; the gen. would be in Sansk. बद्राः, in Prak. बेराए or बारीद; the final देद of the Or its the termination ए of the oblique form of Maráthí feminine nouns in 對 with bases in 對, may be explained. E. g., 可计 Note 3.—The termination & of the oblique form of Maráthí fem. nouns in with bases in &, is to be explained thus: latter form is, in Gaurian, contracted by sandhi to द: thus we obtain the present Gaurian (Maráthí) form बारी. Similarly, with base 句話 tongue; the genitive would be in Sansk. 句話以, in Prák. 句話以 的話報表, the final 對民 of the latter form is, in Gaurian, contracted by sandhi to E; thus we obtain the present Gaurian (Maráthí) oblique form oft. origin may be explained as in Essay IV., p. 63. IV.—TABLE.

On bases in ज्ञन, इन, जन,

Showing the phonetic changes of nominal terminations in Sanskrit, Prákrit, and Gaurian.

A.—Masculina.

Genitive or Oblique form.	Prákrit. Gaurian.	अश्वस, अश्वाह (अयाह, अया) या M. ए H. P. ए P. अये Br. (अवाह), अवा, वा M. अबे Br.	इजस्स, इज्ञास, इज्ञाह (याह), या M. (इ्याह) द्या GW. द्ये Br.	ज्यस, ज्यास, ज्याह (वाह) वा, (यवा) M. (ज्यास, ज्यास, ज्याह) (ज्याह) ज्या GW. ज्ये Br.
	Skr.	अकत्य	इनस	उनस
Nominative or Direct form.	Gaurian.	(अहा Br. अहा G. N. Mr. A. आहा H. M. P. क M. H. P. G. N. आहा P. अधा Br. M. ऐ Br. (अवा Gw. Br. ओ Gw.	((文型) 文 M. H. P. G. N. (文型 GW. Br.	(영왕) জ M. H. P. G. N. (영리 GW. Br.
	Skr. Prák.	अस् सा	अ	द्य
	Skr.	अनः	ক	۵ ا

B.—Feminina.

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(इज्रए), ये M.	(ভস্থা) ने M.		(আঘ), आ M. G. N. Mr. (অঘাই, অঘা) या M. ए H. (অবাই) অবা, वा M.	(याह) या M.	(बाह) वा M.
इंजाए	विश्वार	·a.	ब्यस्स, चबात, अशाह	इअस, इआम, इआह	जयस, ज्याम, ज्याह
दकायाः	विमायाः	C.—Neutra.	क्र	दकस्य	दमस्य
(दज्ज) दे M. H. P. G. N. दे " P. (द्या H.	((영報) 딱 M. H. P. G. N. 端 P. (영報) 나 H. P. G. N. 네 P. G. N. H. H. P. G. N. H. P. G.	, and the second	(報道 Br., 報道 Mr. B. 黃 A. M.	(द्यं), द M.	(खवं), जा M.
र्भा	(3.4)		'লৈ' 'ড	. 195	ेखें च
इका	उना		म ['] स	. इ.क.म	ख कुम अ

V.—TABLE

On bases in अस, इस, उस,

showing the derivation of those Gaurian forms which are made from the Prákrit by means of sandhi.

A.—Masculina.

	Sanskrit.	अकस्त	अभस्य	अनस्य	अनस्य
Genitive or Oblique form.	Prákrit.	बजाह, ज्ञास, अञ्स	अजाह, ष्रजाम, अजसा	अजाह, अजाम, अजसा	ष्रज्ञाह, अज्ञाम, अञ्सा
	Gaurian.	या, (अयाह)	ए, (एह, अयाह)	एं, (एंह, अयाह)	স্থা, (স্থান্ত)
	Skr.	শ্ৰক:	अव:	প্ৰ ভ	अन:
form.	Prák.	स्र	स्र	स्रम	ब्रजा
or Direct	Gaurian.	खा	a a	A C	T. W.
Nominative or Direct form.	Language.	M.	н. Р.	P.	M.
	No.	H	જં	က	4.

अमस्य	अनस	अनस		अकल	इकस्य		अनस	अनत्य	-	डकस्य	
असाह, असाम, असस	असाह, समाम, असस	अवाह, अवास, अवसा		असाह, असाम, असस	इस्राह, इसास, इसस		ब्यशह, खत्रास, अत्रस्त	अयाह, अजास, अञ्चस	1	ज्याह, ज्यास, ज्यस्	
ন্ধা, (স্থান্থ)	या, (खयाह)	ए, (एह, अशह)	福)	ए, (एह, अयाह)	যা, (যান্থ)	c pre	স্থা, (স্থান্থ)	वा, अवा, (अवाह)	þ	वा, ख्या, (वाह)	þ
क	শ্ৰ	अक:	हें हि	ख ख	pre E	भ	ख म:	ক্র	स	ज म :	এ
अजा	बन	अस्।	अखा	अभा	द्रश्रा	द्रञ्जा	स्र	अओ	अओ	<u>ड</u> ञ्जा	तुओ.
福 ,	潮	खे	े जि	a FF	इं, (इस)	इ, (इस्र)	ज (ब्रा)	ज (श्रा)	ज (श्रा)	ज (उथ)	জ (তথ্য)
G. Mr. N.	old. M.	B. A.	M.	Br.	M;	P. H. G. N.	M.	M.	M. H. P. G. N.	M.	H. P. G. N.
5.	.9	7.	∞ ∞	6	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.

B.—Feminina.

	Sanskrit.	दकायाः	1		उकायाः	1	
Genitive or Oblique form.	Prákrit.	द्रजार	1		তস্থাদ		
Ge	Gaurian.	चे, (इए, इसए)	ops) ~ h v	वे (उर, उश्रर)	15	* F
	Skr.	इका	द्रभा	145	उका	डका	उभा
form.	Prák.	इआ	द्या	<u>ج</u>	दश	বেস্থা	. जमा
or Direct	Gaurian.	इ. (इस्र)	इ, (इअ)	इं (इस्र)	জ, (তথ্ৰ)	ন, (বস্থ)	জ (ভ্রু
Nominative or Direct form.	Language.	M.	H. P. G. N.	ě.	M.	H. P. G. N.	ų
	No.	i	.2	ကံ	4.	5.	9

C.—Neutra

ij	B. M.) I	ন্ধ.	अकम	ए, (एह, स्याह)	अजाह, अजास, अजस	अमस
23	Mr.	` !	अं.	अनम	आ (आह)	अश्राह, अश्राम. अञ्चस	अकस्य
က	Br.	å	अय:	अकस्	ए (एह, ख्याह)	ब्याह, ब्यास, अस्स	जनस
4,	M.	एँ (अयं)	स्र	अकम्	या (अया, अयाह)	असाह, ससाम, समस	अकस्य
5.	M.	इं (इयं)	रूखं	इकम्	या (याह)	द्याह, द्यास, द्यस्	इकस्य
6.	M.	जः (आँ)	ख.	ख्यभ	স্থা (স্থান্ত)	ब्यजाह, अयाम, अवस्त	अकस्य
7.	M.	जः (अर्) अर्	क्षं.	अकम्	वा, अवा (अवाह)	ब्रजाह, ज्याम, ज्यम्स	अकस्य
တံ	Α.	क् (आँ)	ক্ৰ	अक्रम	ए, (एह, अयाह)	बचाह, अग्राम, जजसा	अंकास
ဝ်	M.	ু	त्यं.	उक्स	वा (वाह), ख्रवा	उत्राह, उत्रास, उन्नस	डमस्य
10.	.	ड (जं, जाँ) ज	खं.	अकाम	बाँ, (बाँह)	यत्राह, यत्रास, यत्रस	अकत्य
11.	ż	ब (ब्र [°])	'ল 'ল	अकम	आ, आह	अगाह, अजास, अवस्त	अकत्य
				``			

VI.—TABLE

On bases in अक, इक, उक,

showing the derivation of those Gaurian forms which were made from the Prákrit by inserting the euphonic semivowels a or a.

		Sanskrit.	अनस्य	अकस		अनस	अनस	
	Genitive or Oblique form.	Prákrit.	अत्राह, सत्रात, अत्रस	अजाह, अजार, अजस		अशाह, अआत, अन्स	अआह, अआत, अअस	
A.—Masculina.	Ď	Gaurian.	স্থ্যা (স্থ্যান্ত্ৰ)	अये (अयाह)	(b)	अवा (अवाह)	अवे (अयाह)	WIT.
		Skr.	में ख	শ্ৰ ক	ख	स् स्	अन:	अन:
	orm.	Prák.	अओ	अञ्	ब्रुआ	अञ्चा	अञ्	अओ
	Nom. or Direct form.	Gaurian	या (अया)	अया	ए (ज्यय)	अवा	अवा	জা (জ্বন)
	N_{0}	No. Language	M.	Br.	Br.	GW.	Br.	GW.
		No.	i.	%	က	4.	5.	6.

इनस्य	इकस्य	डमस	डमस					
इस्राह, इस्राम, इसस	इस्राह, इस्रास, इस्स	डमाह, उमाम, उमस	उत्राह, उत्रास, उत्रास					
इया (इयाह)	इये (इयाह)	ভৰা (ভৰান্থ)	ভ ল (ভ্ৰমান্থ)	B.—Feminina.	द्या	दवा	C.—Neutra.	
द्रभः	je je	ত্ৰক:	उम:		क्र	त्रभा		
بع <u>با</u>	इसा	ज्ञे।	বেঞ্জা		दबा	বেস্থা		
द्या	दया	त्व	उवा		द्या	खवा		
GW.	Br.	GW.	Br.		H.	H.		
7.	∞ ∞	9.	10.			જં		

Maráțhí neuters in č (Table V, No. 4) and Maráțhí neuters in Š (Table V, No. 7) might be also enumerated under

VII.—Table.
Examples to Tables I, II, III.

Genitive or Oblique form.	Skr. Prákrit.	$\left. \left. \left. \left. \right \right \right \left. \left. \left. \left. \left. \right \right \right \left. \right \right \right \right \right \right \left. $	$\left. \left. \begin{array}{c c} \text{EI.} \end{array} \right\} \left. \begin{array}{c} \left(\text{ tinage} \\ \text{tinage} \end{array} \right) \left. \begin{array}{c} \left(\text{ tinage} \\ \text{tinage} \end{array} \right) \left. \begin{array}{c} \left(\text{ tinage} \\ \text{tinage} \end{array} \right) \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{tinage} \\ \text{tinage} \end{array} \right) \right.$	$\left. \left. \begin{array}{c} H. \\ H. \\ M. \end{array} \right\} \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \\ \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \end{array} \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left. \left(\begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right) \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} Hi east H. \\ Hi east H. \right \left \begin{array}{c} $	मिषिकास्य (मूसखास etc.) ((मूसयाह, मूस्या) मूसे H. (मूसवाह) मुसवाह) मूसवाह GW.
	Gaurian.	(ਬोड़ा Br. घाड़ा Mr. G. N. घाड़ा H. P. M. घाड़वा, घाड़ा GW.	(रामा M. * राम्या M. रमय, रमे । (रमवा GW.	् साला Mr. G. N. साल H. साल H. साल साल मा.	(मुस्ता H. P. M. G. N. मुस्तवा GW.
Nominative or Direct form.	Prák.	घाडमा	रामखा	माल्या	न मसञ्जा
Nominat	Skr.	म । टकाः	् रामः	स्यातः	भ पि अ
	Affix.	শ্ৰ	स । ज	-	खुक for इक

H. स. सह पर सह सह पर सह सह पर सह सह पर सह स्वार सिक स्व सिक	सालिश्वास् । (सिल्याह) सिल्या उफ. किविशाह etc. (किवियाह) किविया उफ. (किवियाह) किविया उफ. (किवियाह) किविया अ.
उक $\left. \left. \left. \right \right. \right.$ माहका: $\left. \left(\right. \right.$ माहजा $\left. \left. \right \right.$ माहजा $\left. \left. \right \right.$ माजजा $\left. \left. \right \right.$ माजजा $\left. \left. \right \right.$ माजजा $\left. \left. \right \right.$ माजज्ञ $\left. \left. \right \right.$ माजज्ञ $\left. \left. \right \right.$	माद्याह etc. }

Continuation of VII. -TABLE.

	form.	Gaurian.	(बियाह, विया) ह बिये M. ?		(बालुग्रए) दास्ते M.	(मासुअए) मास्ने M.		
	Genitive or Oblique form.	Prákrit.	बीआस, बीआह बीइआए		बास्त्रआए	सासुत्राए		
na.	Gen	Skr.	(बीजस्य (बीजिकायाः		वाल्कायाः	अ इस्त्रचा:		
B.—Heminina.	t form.	Gaurian.	ने M.	(घाड़ी M. H. P. G. N. (घाड़िया GW.	वाल M. H. विल्वा GW.	साह M.	गेरी M. गेरू M. H. गुरवा GW.	मार H. मद्या GW. ।
	Nominative or Direct form.	Prák.	बीखं बीद्या	घादिया	वास्त्रभा	सामुखा	(गरिया) गरमा*	(माद्रुआ (माख्रुआ
	Nominativ	Skr.	(तीज) (वीजिका)	घाटिका	ब	ক্ষ ^ত ক্ষ	गरिका	माहका (माता)
		Affix	र्द		ks D	4+	ज्यम् रिक इ.स	ज्यम for च्यम
		No.	i.		લ			

(सुवस्थास (संग्वाह) सेन्या आ. G. सुवस्थास स्मिन्या आ. सेन्या आ. सेन्या आ. सेन्या आ. सेन्या आ.	(「中田報 (「中田司」)「中田司」 (「中田司」 (「中田司」 (「中田司」 (「中田司」 (「中田司」 (「中田司」	पेडमाह etc. (पेलवाह) पेलवा, पेला M.	(मानिश्रम् मानिश्राम (मानिश्राह) (मानियाह) मानिया GW.	(दहियास etc.) (दह्याह) दह्या M. (दहियाह) (दहियाह) दहिया GW.	अंसुआस etc. (अंस्ताह) आंसा M. अंसुआह) (अंसुवाह) आंसुना GW.
स्वर्षस्य	पिसस	पटनस्य	मात्रिकस्य	jot hv	्रेड ज
(साना Mr. साना Br. सानू A.) सान G. साना H. सानय old H. साने M.	(पिसें) पिसें M. पिसा H.) पिसेवा GW.	(पेलवं, पेलाँ) पेल M.	(मातो M. मातो H.) (मातिया GW.	(दहीं M. दहीं H. (दहिया GW.	्रिजास्त M. जास H. जिसुवा GW.
त्य . स्याप्त	पिस्	प् प्रका	मानिसं	द हिस	\$. \$\frac{1}{2}\$.
ह्म न हो । जन्म ने स्वास्त्र	(पिस्तम्)	प्रक्रम	मा जिल्ल	द्धि	聚 。
₩ + ₩			ক ক	to + wr	F + D

* Also Skr. गवेड्का or गवेहकम्।